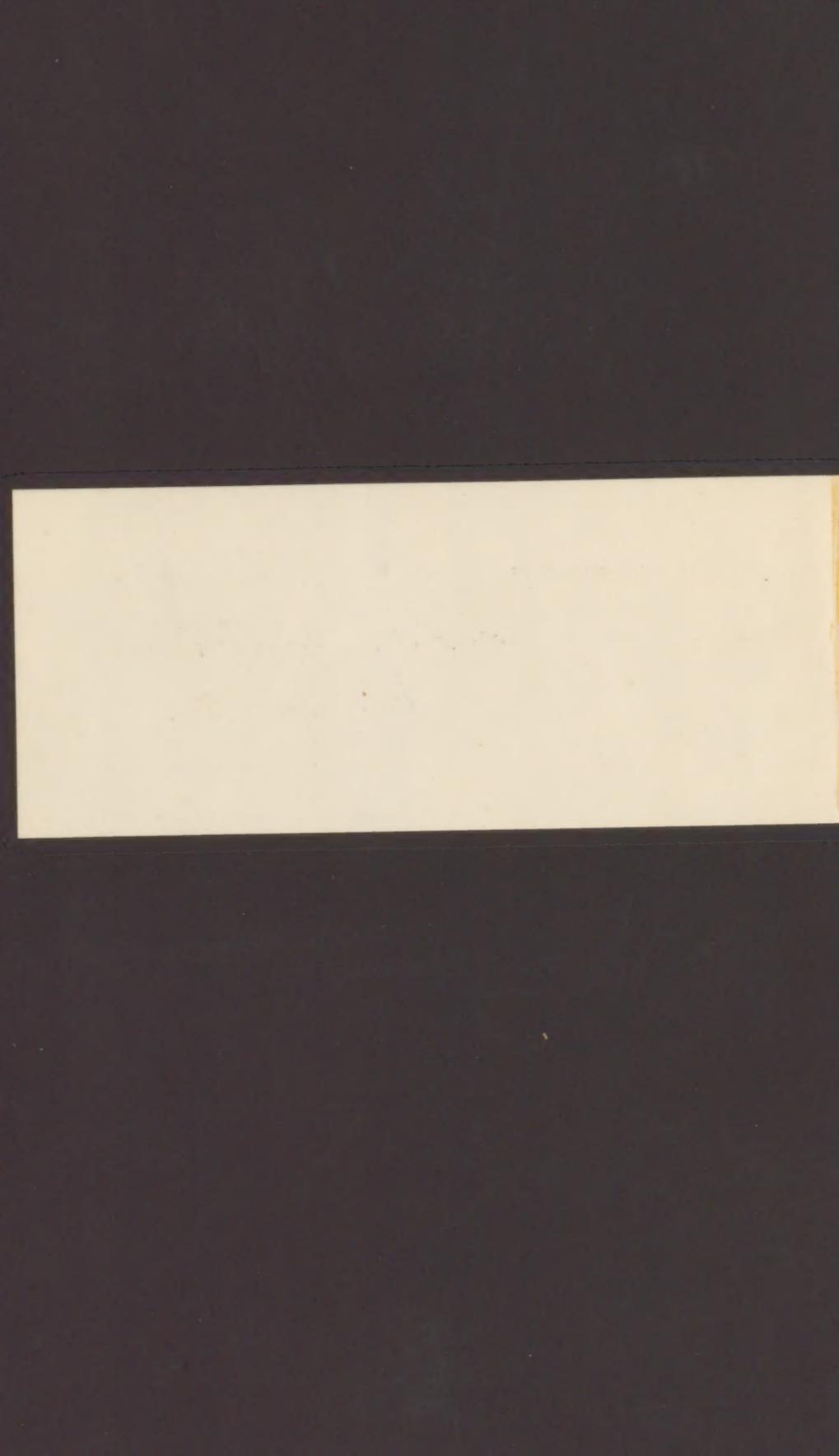


With Compliments of

George E. McNeill,

16 Kinnard Street,

Cambridgeport



Mc'Neill (Geo. E.)

FACTORY CHILDREN.

REPORT

UPON THE

Schooling and Hours of Labor of Children

EMPLOYED IN THE

MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL ESTABLISHMENTS
OF MASSACHUSETTS.

By GEORGE E. MCNEILL,
DEPUTY STATE CONSTABLE.

*Box 15
5*

"And whosoever shall offend one of these little ones . . . it is better for him that a millstone were hanged about his neck, and he were cast into the sea."

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Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

BOSTON, MASS., January 11, 1875.

To His Excellency WILLIAM GASTON, Governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

SIR:—There are in this Commonwealth upwards of sixty thousand children, of school age, who are growing up in ignorance, contrary to the ancient policy of the State, and in open violation of the letter and spirit of existing laws.

To protect and provide for this vast and increasing body of illiterates, the legislature of 1867 authorized "the constable of the Commonwealth to specially detail one of his deputies." The Hon. Henry K. Oliver, of Salem, was the first appointee, serving two years, and making two official reports.

In August, 1869, the duties of the office were assigned to Capt. J. Waldo Denny.

After the establishment of the police commission, in 1871, no officer was detailed, but the following instructions were given to each member of the force:—

"Constables of the Commonwealth will, as far as practicable, ascertain by interviews with children employed, by examination of school certificates, or other evidence, if there is a compliance with the provisions of the law. Your attention is called to the statute of 1867.

"Officers will not incur extra expense in making investigations under the foregoing law, unless upon reliable and positive information of a violation of its provisions, when they will act as in any other criminal matter."

Upon the abolition of the police commission, it became the duty of the chief constable to detail an officer for this work.

At the request of Lieut. Governor Thomas Talbot, himself a manufacturer, I was appointed a state constable August 8, 1874, and detailed to carry into execution the laws relating to the employment and schooling of children.

In accepting the position, I stated to His Excellency and to the chief constable, that it was my purpose to prepare a plan of operations under which the intent of the law could be realized; that the present laws were confusing, conflicting; and that if the proper facilities could be granted me, I believed that the next legislature would so modify and improve its legislation as to make practicable and efficient a system of education that has been, since the earliest days of the Commonwealth, our chief glory and boast.

Immediately after accepting my commission, I commenced my investigations, and found the laws inoperative. In many places they were misunderstood; in others it was believed that the child-laws had been repealed; in others a desire was expressed for the adoption of some method by which the employer and child alike could be protected from misrepresentation as to age, schooling and previous employment.

To attempt the enforcement of law under these circumstances would seem oppressive.

In correspondence and conversation with some of our best educators and manufacturers, I have found, not only a willingness, but a desire to coöperate in any plan that should give to every child the benefit of a common school education.

I therefore desired to prepare and have printed the plan before referred to, together with the laws upon this subject. To do this required a room, stationery, etc. On the 21st day of November, I was assigned a room in the building formerly occupied by the state police, at No. 24 Pemberton Square. This gave me but about six weeks before the time of making the annual report. I therefore have deferred the publication of any plan or circulars until after the legislature had met and acted upon such recommendations as your Excellency might suggest, or the facts presented in this report, or the report of the Board of Education, or the Bureau of Labor Statistics, might inspire.

In addition to the visits made, I have occupied my time in the collection and compilation of such authentic statistics as

the imperfect data of our system will permit, and the presentation of such matters of law and experience as will tend to the information of the general court.

Number of Children not attending School.

In the short time since my appointment, it has been impossible to obtain, by any system of visits or circulars of inquiry, the number of children employed in our manufacturing and mechanical establishments, or of non-attendance at school.

From the report of the Hon. H. K. Oliver (Senate Document No. 21, 1868), it appears that at that time there were 927 establishments, in 151 cities and towns, where children were employed between ten and fifteen years of age; and in this connection he says:—

“Should the duties under this law be continued, it would seem to be necessary, in view of the fact of the wide extent of territory over which our manufacturing establishments are spread, to provide by law some definite and thorough means for obtaining exact information. It is clearly impossible for one person to travel through the State, canvass the whole area of each town, and visit each establishment, in order effectually to carry out the provisions of the statute. In the city of Boston alone there is a very large number of places wherein children are employed, though undoubtedly in much smaller number in each establishment than in those in large manufacturing towns, such as Lowell, Lawrence, and Fall River.”

The number of children so employed was not obtained, on account of the fact that the proprietors, or persons in charge, refused or neglected to answer the inquiries contained in the circulars forwarded them. Of the 517 circulars of inquiries sent to these towns, only 100 responded. The next year, 343 responded. The same difficulties were met in the investigations of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor. So that it appears that no *voluntary* system can be made to accomplish the desired work.

Desirous of obtaining the nearest approximate number of unschooled children, I have analyzed the latest returns to the Board of Education, the printed proofs of which were furnished me by the kindness of S. C. Jackson, the state librarian.

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Your attention is earnestly requested to the explanations of the accompanying tables, without which some of the returns may appear conflicting and confusing.

The data given by the school returns is as follows:—

Number of different scholars in the school during the school-year, 297,025; number of children in the State between five and fifteen, May 1, 1873, 292,481; number under five and over fifteen who attend public schools, 27,239; average attendance of all ages in the schools during the school-year, 210,248.

From this data, it appears that there are 4,544 more scholars registered as attending the public schools than there were children between five and fifteen years of age in the State, May 1, 1873. It also appears that there are 27,239 children under five and over fifteen who attend the public schools. This, subtracted from the number of different scholars registered as attending school, gives 269,786 registered scholars between five and fifteen years of age.

In the following table is given the data obtained from the school returns, and such other totals and averages as may be obtained therefrom, representing towns with populations of from 5,000 to 40,000. It will be observed that there are two sets of averages,—one representing the averages of attendance and non-attendance of children *registered* as attending school, the other representing the attendance and non-attendance of all the children in the several places between five and fifteen years of age.

The average attendance of those under five and over fifteen is obtained by subtracting from the total number of such children the same percentage of non-attendance as obtains in the per cent. of pupils of all ages. The average number of such attendants, subtracted from the average number attending of all ages, leaves the average attendance between five and fifteen. Subtracting this from the whole number between five and fifteen, gives the non-attendants of these ages. This formula gives the averages of the first set.

The average attendance of all the children between five and fifteen, in any given place is obtained by subtracting the average attendance of those between five and fifteen from the total number of such children in the place, on May 1, 1873, as for

instance :—The total number of children in the State between five and fifteen was 292,481; the average attendance of the same age was 190,908; leaving 101,573 as the average number of non-attendants, or more than *one-third* of all the children between five and fifteen in the State non-attendants. Of this 101,573, 22,695 were not enrolled in the public schools, leaving 78,878 as the absentees of registered or enrolled scholars between five and fifteen years of age.

By personal examination, I find the actual per cent. of average *daily* non-attendance, from sickness and other causes, to be less than twelve per cent., not more than ten in most cases. But even allowing twenty per cent. of absentees from these causes, there would be 63,102 of the registered scholars between five and fifteen as habitual non-attendants. Adding to this the number not accounted for, gives 85,797 children practically receiving no benefit from the public schools.

Deducting the average number attending private schools, 13,144 (though their ages are not given), leaves 72,658 children, of school age, practically deriving no benefit from our school system.

By reference to Table I., it will be seen that, in several towns, the number of children between five and fifteen, *in school*, exceeds the number of children of the same age *in those places, May 1, 1873*, amounting in the aggregate to 1,251.

The cause of this excess may be found in the fact that the first is the registry of a whole year, the other is the enumeration of May 1. Many of those registered in school during the year may, on the first of May, have exceeded that age, or graduated, died or left town.

These errors do not invalidate the averages in Table II., nor do they the ratios in the 1, 2, 3, 4 columns of Table III., as both are based upon the registration of children in school. This is illustrated in the case of Fall River. There the number of different scholars registered in school is 7,581. The average attendance of the same ages is 3,821; non-attendance, 3,760. And the number between five and fifteen registered as in school is 7,361. Average attendance, same age, 3,711; non-attendance, 3,750.

TABLE I.

Number of Scholars in School, and not accounted for.

TOWN.	No. of children between 5 and 15, May 1, 1872.	No. of different scholars registered in public schools.	No. under 5 and over 15 in school.	No. between 5 and 15 in school.	No. between 5 and 15 not accounted for.
Attleborough,	1,511	1,614	193	1,421	90
Amesbury,	1,217	995	88	907	310
Beverly,	1,463	1,360	88	1,272	191
Danvers,	1,155	1,163	100	1,063	92
Marblehead,	1,635	1,486	37	1,449	186
Westfield,	1,314	1,449	161	1,288	26
Brookline,	1,200	1,264	56	1,208	-
Dedham,	1,099	946	74	872	227
Quincy,	1,620	1,570	61	1,509	111
Plymouth,	1,143	1,003	60	943	200
Blackstone,	1,149	1,297	90	1,207	-
Clinton,	1,115	1,244	53	1,191	-
Southbridge,	1,063	984	114	870	193
Adams,	2,646	2,855	180	2,675	-
Pittsfield,	2,804	2,128	200	1,928	876
Haverhill,	2,659	2,860	262	2,598	61
Newburyport,	2,414	2,456	120	2,336	78
Holyoke,	2,565	1,123	90	1,083	1,532
Northampton,	2,191	2,403	250	2,153	38
Newton,	2,780	3,205	329	2,876	-
Fitchburg,	2,186	2,261	209	2,052	184
Fall River,	7,096	7,581	220	7,361	-
New Bedford,	3,790	3,671	233	3,488	352
Lawrence,	5,141	4,048	270	3,778	1,363
Lynn,	7,202	5,454	238	5,216	1,986
Salem,	5,420	4,125	294	3,831	1,589
Springfield,	4,399	5,238	311	4,927	-
Cambridge,	8,433	9,013	656	8,357	76
Lowell,	6,728	7,515	596	6,919	-
Worcester,	7,681	9,990	670	9,320	-
Boston,	57,830	54,129	3,545	50,584	7,246
Totals,	150,649	146,430	9,848	186,582	-
State,	292,481	297,025	27,239	269,786	22,695

TABLE II.

Average Attendance and Non-Attendance.

TOWN.	Average attendance of children of all ages registered as attending public school during the year.	Average non-attendance of children of all ages registered as attending public school.	Average attendance of children under 5 and over 15 registered as attending public school.	Average attendance of children between 5 and 15 registered as attending public school.	Average non-attendance of children between 5 and 15 registered as attending public school.
Attleborough,	1,005	609	120	885	536
Amesbury,	769	226	68	701	206
Beverly,	997	363	65	932	340
Danvers,	912	251	88	824	239
Marblehead,	1,298	188	33	1,265	184
Westfield,	1,045	404	116	929	359
Brookline,	954	310	42	912	296
Dedham,	788	158	62	726	146
Quincy,	1,208	362	47	1,161	348
Plymouth,	829	174	50	779	164
Blackstone,	699	598	49	650	557
Clinton,	950	294	41	909	282
Southbridge,	648	336	76	572	298
Adams,	1,735	1,120	110	1,625	1,050
Pittsfield,	1,497	631	170	1,327	601
Haverhill,	2,255	605	207	2,048	550
Newburyport,	1,554	902	76	1,478	858
Holyoke,	859	264	69	790	243
Northampton,	1,721	682	180	1,541	612
Newton,	2,227	978	228	1,999	877
Fitchburg,	1,686	575	157	1,529	523
Fall River,	8,821	3,760	110	3,711	3,650
New Bedford,	2,868	803	182	2,686	752
Lawrence,	2,674	1,374	179	2,495	1,283
Lynn,	4,095	1,359	179	3,916	1,300
Salem,	2,833	1,292	203	2,630	1,201
Springfield,	3,585	1,653	212	3,373	1,554
Cambridge,	6,073	2,940	440	5,633	2,724
Lowell,	4,654	2,861	370	4,284	2,635
Worcester,	6,134	3,856	409	5,725	3,595
Boston,	40,830	13,299	2,676	38,154	19,676
Totals,	103,203	43,227	7,014	96,189	47,639
State,	210,248	86,777	19,340	190,908	78,878

TABLE III.

Ratio of Attendance and Non-Attendance.

TOWN.	Ratio of attendance of children of all ages to the number of different scholars registered as attending school.		Ratio of attendance of children between 5 and 15 to the number of scholars of same age registered as attending school.		Ratio of attendance of children between 5 and 15 to the number of children of same age in the town.	
	Attendance.	Non-Attendance.	Attendance.	Non-Attendance.	Attendance.	Non-Attendance.
Attleborough,	62.26	37.74	62.28	37.72	58.57	41.43
Amesbury, .	77.28	22.72	77.28	22.72	57.60	42.40
Beverly, .	73.30	26.70	73.27	26.73	63.70	36.30
Danvers, .	78.41	21.59	77.51	22.49	71.34	28.66
Marblehead, .	87.34	12.66	87.30	12.70	77.37	22.63
Westfield, .	72.11	27.89	72.12	27.88	70.70	29.30
Brookline, .	75.47	24.53	75.49	24.51	76.00	24.00
Dedham, .	83.29	16.71	83.25	16.75	66.06	33.94
Quincy, .	76.94	23.06	76.93	23.07	71.66	28.34
Plymouth, .	82.64	17.36	82.60	17.40	68.15	31.85
Blackstone, .	53.89	46.11	53.85	46.15	56.57	43.43
Clinton, .	76.36	23.64	76.32	23.68	81.52	18.48
Southbridge, .	65.85	34.15	65.74	34.26	53.80	46.20
Adams .	60.77	39.23	60.74	39.26	61.41	38.59
Pittsfield, .	70.34	29.66	68.82	31.18	47.32	52.68
Haverhill, .	78.84	21.16	78.82	21.18	77.02	22.98
Newburyport,	63.27	36.73	63.27	36.73	61.22	38.78
Holyoke, .	76.49	23.51	76.47	23.53	30.79	69.21
Northampton, .	71.61	28.39	71.57	28.43	70.38	29.67
Newton, .	69.48	30.52	69.50	30.50	71.90	28.10
Fitchburg, .	74.56	25.44	74.51	25.49	69.94	30.06
Fall River, .	50.40	49.60	50.41	49.59	52.29	47.71
New Bedford, .	78.12	21.88	78.12	21.88	70.87	29.13
Lawrence, .	66.05	33.95	66.04	33.96	48.53	51.47
Lynn, .	75.08	24.92	75.07	24.93	54.37	45.63
Salem, .	68.67	31.33	68.65	31.35	48.52	51.48
Springfield, .	68.44	31.56	68.45	31.55	76.67	23.33
Cambridge, .	67.38	32.62	67.40	32.60	66.79	33.21
Lowell, .	61.92	38.08	61.91	38.09	63.67	36.33
Worcester, .	61.40	38.60	61.42	38.58	73.23	26.77
Boston, .	75.61	24.39	75.42	24.58	65.97	34.03
State, .	70.78	29.22	70.76	29.24	65.27	34.73

By these tables, it appears that the percentage of attendants of all ages (exclusive of Boston), is 67.57, non-attendants 32.43, and 67.36 per cent. of attendants between five and fifteen, and 32.64 per cent. non-attendants.

By personal examination of the statistics of a primary school having 472 registered pupils and an actual average daily attendance of 413, it appeared that there was 87.5 percentage of attendance and 12.5 per cent. non-attendance; while, according to the usual form of returns, the average attendance was 92.1 per cent., non-attendance 7.9 per cent., showing that there was an actual non-attendance of 4.6 per cent. more than given in the school returns. In the State, the percentage of attendance of pupils registered as in school, of all ages, is 70.78; non-attendants, 29.22; and the percentage of attendance between five and fifteen is 70.76; non-attendance, 29.24. Adding the 4.6, the per cent. of non-attendants would be respectively 33.82 and 33.84. The ratio of attendance and non-attendance of children between five and fifteen to the number of children of the same age in the State, is 65.27 attendants and 34.73 non-attendants, or about *one-third of the enrolled children habitual non-attendants.*

According to the United States census for 1870, the number of children in this State between five and seventeen inclusive, who did not attend any school, public or private, was 110,425. According to this table, the number between five and fifteen (supposed to be inclusive) is 101,570. If the attendance and non-attendance of those of and under seventeen years of age were given, it would doubtless more nearly agree with the census returns.

Making all deductions, and giving the most liberal allowance for errors, there would be above 60,000 children between five and fifteen years of age who are yet to be reached by some effective method of compulsory education.

Sixty thousand children growing up in ignorance! It is impossible for the mind to contemplate the terrible import of these figures. They are so astounding as to seem almost incredible, and will lead many to question the correctness of educational statistics. That our system is imperfect is con-

fessed; yet, as will be shown, that confession will not invalidate the truth of our statement.

At a meeting of the department of superintendence of the national educational association, held at Washington, in January, 1874, the subject of State and city school reports was fully discussed by some of the most practical and efficient superintendents in the country. The following brief synopsis will be found of interest, as showing the need of a better system of educational statistics:—

Hon. WILLIAM R. CREEERY, of Baltimore: At the convention at St. Louis, I took strong ground against statistics generally, and pronounced them worthless for purposes of comparison, as they simply deluded the unwary. I used some plain language on the subject, which created a little feeling among my brother superintendents, who prided themselves on their splendid exhibits, the effort seeming to be in many cases to present school statistics in their best light, and not in the truest light. Superintendents are sometimes publicly attacked about the expenses of their schools. They must frequently defend themselves by using the statistics of other cities. How important is it, then, that these statistics should be made up in some generally known way. We should have a common language on statistics, that could be understood, on the mere reading, by any one of ordinary intelligence. When we read of the percentage of attendance and tardiness, we want to understand what is meant, and how the results are obtained. I am glad that my friend avoided the use of the phrase "the average number belonging." We hold that to belong is to be enrolled, and to have an actual membership, which cannot be changed every three days, at convenience. In making the percentage of attendance, we think it right to include all in the basis, not excepting the sick, or those temporarily absent from cause. Suppose that fifty is the number of a certain class, and five are absent from sickness, we estimate the attendance on the fifty, and not on the forty-five. The whole subject of school statistics is in need of reformation. Under existing circumstances, it is impossible to make intelligent replies to the many inquiries that are sent from city to city for information.

Mr. J. D. PHILBRICK, of Boston: The fundamental element which we want, I think, is the number of children who are due at school. What is the enumeration of the children who ought to go to school? There is great diversity in regard to the age at which this enumeration is taken, and I hope General Eaton, our admirable national commissioner, will fix upon some age for the enumeration of the

children, which shall be recommended as the proper age for education in the public schools of the different States. If we can begin by having the school age the same in all the States, we shall have one element upon which we can begin our comparisons. The next thing is the enrollment, or the number belonging. We use that phrase, "the number belonging." My friend from Baltimore [Mr. CREERY] does not seem to fancy that. I should be very happy to change that, and adopt a different phrase, if we can all agree upon it. I find the word "enrollment" is used, but I do not understand what is meant by that. I know what is meant by the number belonging, as we use it. We report the average number belonging for six months, and the average number belonging for the year. We know exactly what it means. We mean by that phrase simply that, when a scholar comes to school, his name is placed on the record-book, and that he is counted as one belonging to the school; and, if absent ten half-days, he is not so considered. We adopted that practice in order to concur with suggestions from the West. Mr. Weld made some plans, which were adopted by many cities, so as to be, in certain respects, uniform. It made not the slightest difference whether we counted ten half-days or six half-days.

Mr. A. P. MARBLE, of Worcester: In case a pupil is absent ten half-days, are these half-days counted among the absences?

Mr. PHILBRICK: Yes, sir. Now, see how perfectly easy it is to obtain an average. You simply take the number "belonging," or that are "enrolled"; then, counting each day, and averaging for a month or year, you will have the average number "belonging," or "enrolled."

Mr. GEORGE L. FARNHAM: Suppose a pupil has left, and takes his books, do you count him as belonging?

Mr. PHILBRICK: Of course not. If we agree on that point, the rest will be easy. I learn that in the great State of New York there are some 225,000 pupils. I look at the attendance, and I find it is about 90,000. The enumeration is made up for a certain purpose, to meet certain requirements in regard to the distribution of the educational fund. But, when we come to actual attendance, we know what that is. There is no difficulty about actual attendance, because it is the actual presence of the child; and when I get that from any State, I always feel that I am on *terra firma*.

Mr. R. W. STEVENSON: In regard to the enumeration of children, the law of Ohio compels it to be made by those who are under oath to make a fair and honest return of all children between the ages of six and twenty-one. That is an item of our statistics upon which we can rely.

Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM: We want to know, by some reliable

means, first, how many children there are to be educated; secondly, how many are enrolled in the schools; thirdly, the attendance.

Hon. M. B. HOPKINS: In Indiana, we have a law requiring an enumeration to be taken every year of all the children between six and twenty-one years of age; and we test that law every year. The results are decidedly satisfactory. I have no doubt that we have the matter as nearly right as we can get it. This enumeration is taken by the township trustees, and the regular increase from year to year shows that it must be about correct.

General EATON: We must know the number of children that are to be educated; for it is their education that we, as educators, are trying to accomplish. Now, we do not know that, and yet we are coming towards it with a certainty which is very encouraging, in spite of all the difficulties thrown in our way.

The result of this debate occasioned the recommendation of a system that will no doubt be presented to the proper committee of the general court.

With all the doubt that is thrown around statistics, they yet remain as the best authority for purposes of investigation, especially when they can be sustained by general observation and complete representative data.

That an immense army of uneducated and undisciplined children is growing up among us, is shown, not only by the State and United States statistics, but by the general observation of men interested in the welfare of children, the widest diffusion of education, and the perpetuity of our free institutions. The terrible fact is further revealed by the incontrovertible evidence of the organization and condition of our schools.

By the kindness of Francis Cogswell, superintendent of schools of Cambridge, I have been furnished with the following data, obtained from the registers of six of the grammar schools in that city:—

Number of pupils in the different Classes of Six of the Grammar Schools of Cambridge, October 17, 1874.

	First.*	Second.	Third.	Fourth.	Fifth.	Sixth.	Total.
Shepard,	33	32	54	86	98	123	426
Washington,	31	53	71	121	107	118	501
Harvard,	61	75	120	158	100	144	658
Allston,	29	37	76	123	138	165	568
Webster,	33	55	96	102	147	171	604
Thorndike,	25	34	68	80	91	172	470
Putnam,	17	27	46	80	103	121	394
Totals,	229	313	531	750	784	1,014	3,621

* The first is the highest class.

In the following table is given the per cent. of membership and average age of each class in six grammar schools :—

Per Cent. of Membership and Average Age in the Six Classes of Six Grammar Schools in Cambridge.

NUMBER OF CLASS.	Per cent. of membership.	Average age.	
		Years.	Months.
1 (highest),	6	14	6
2,	8	13	10
3,	15	13	—
4,	20	12	3
5,	21	11	6
6,	30	10	2

By this table, it appears that fifty-one per cent. are below twelve years of age, or eighty-six per cent. of and under thirteen years of age.

Mr. Philbrick, superintendent of the Boston schools, in his twenty-seventh semi-annual report, September, 1874, gives, on page 15, the following table of the grammar schools of Boston. The average ages of the different classes are not given :—

Classification of the pupils of the Grammar Schools at the close of the Summer term, 1873.

Classes.	No. Aug. 31, 1873.	Per cent.
First class (highest),	1,243	.07
Second class,	1,806	.10

						No. Aug. 31, 1873.	Per cent.
Third class,	2,526	.14
Fourth class,	2,996	.17
Fifth class,	4,181	.23
Sixth class,	5,144	.29
<i>Ages.</i>							
Under eight,	83	.005
Eight years,	981	.05
Nine years,	1,966	.11
Ten years,	2,872	.16
Eleven years,	2,958	.16
Twelve years,	3,144	.18
Thirteen years,	2,632	.15
Fourteen years,	1,828	.10
Fifteen years and over,	1,434	.08

Mr. Philbrick says:—

"These figures are extremely important, as showing the condition of our grammar schools. I confess that they do not look so well as I could wish. *There are too few pupils in the upper classes, and too many in the lower.* Taking the average of two or three years past, the number in the first class is about 28 per cent. of the number admitted from the primary schools. This proportion is far from being satisfactory. Then the number in the sixth class is, on the other hand, too large. It will be seen that it is larger, by some 800, than the number of pupils admitted during the year from the primary schools. This means that 800 pupils were more than one year engaged upon the studies of the sixth class. Again, if we compare the classification by ages with the classification by proficiency, the result is not so satisfactory as could be desired. The number in the two lower classes exceeds by upwards of 600 the whole number of pupils eleven years old and under. More than half of all the pupils in the grammar schools are found in the two lowest classes. *This showing ought to be radically changed.*"

By this table it appears that $66\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the children in the grammar schools of Boston are under twelve years, and $81\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of and under thirteen years of age. In Cambridge, the total number of pupils in school January 1, 1874, was 7,379. Number in the primary schools, 3,954; number in the grammar schools, 3,420; number in the high school, 365. The number admitted to the grammar school in 1873 was

781. The number graduated, 156. Number admitted to the high school, 149. Graduated, 35.

In the report of the superintendent of schools of Worcester, for 1872, pages 109 and 110 City Document, Mr. A. K. Marble says:—

“Of the whole number registered in all the schools, except the evening schools, less than seventy-four per cent. (.738) is the average number belonging for the year. Of this average number less than ninety per cent. are in the schools daily. The cost of the schools for the year is \$128,000. There has therefore been a pecuniary loss from absence of \$12,800; or making allowance for unavoidable causes, a loss of \$10,000. But dollars and cents cannot express the loss occasioned by this absence; the interruption of classes and the loss of interest in school cannot be so computed.

The disparity between the whole number registered and the average number belonging to our schools shows two facts: First, that the law requiring the attendance at school of all children of school age three months in the year is pretty thoroughly obeyed; and secondly, that about two thousand children are withdrawn from school at the end of that time. The first of these facts is a triumphant answer to the charge of some of our western friends, that the law of this State for compulsory attendance is a failure and cannot be enforced. The second proves the necessity for extending the time of attendance required, to the whole school year. The enforcement of the law would doubtless then be as complete as it now is, and less difficult. It is useless to repeat arguments on this subject. Thorough universal education is the recognized necessity of our institutions. Not more words, but a little healthy legislation, is the need of the hour.”

The school committee of Fall River, in their report for 1873, page 1, referring to the same subject, say:—

“The number of scholars registered in our schools during the past year, supposing the returns to be correct, is 7,581, of which 22⁰ were over fifteen years of age. From this statement it appears that nearly all the children of the city, between five and fifteen years of age, enter our schools some time during the year; and yet the average attendance is only a fraction over fifty per cent., which shows that more than one-half of the children do not attend school long enough to receive a tithe of the benefits they are calculated to confer. How to awaken a deeper interest among all classes in

public education, and especially to make parents realize the great necessity of requiring their children regularly and continuously to attend our public schools, are matters of pressing importance."

And again on page 5 :—

"The average attendance of children at our public schools in 1872—the latest date from which comparative statistics have been published—was a fraction over 58 per cent. of the number between five and fifteen years of age; which places us at the foot of the cities and towns in the county,—below Lowell, Lawrence, Worcester and other cities, and the three hundred and twenty-second out of the three hundred and fifty cities and towns which sent in their returns to the State. In our appropriation per scholar, our city stands the one hundred and thirty-ninth, and in the percentage of taxable property appropriated to public schools, the three hundred and twentieth in the list of cities and towns in the State; and the lowest but one of the nineteen in the county."

And on page 6 :—

"If most of the scholars which entered the primary schools passed through the succeeding grades in regular order, the labor of instruction would be greatly lessened, and a systematic method could be adopted, with a rational expectation of its being successfully pursued. But when, as in our city, only a small fraction—as may be learned from the superintendent's report—of those who enter the primaries reach the grammar grade, and not one-quarter of the latter pass into the high school, the problem how to conduct the schools, so as to make them most efficient and useful, becomes somewhat complicated."

By the following table it appears that 49.6 per cent. of all the children registered in the Fall River schools are receiving, practically, no benefit from them. It will also be observed that the number of sittings or seats for pupils is 2,411 less than the number of registered scholars.

GENERAL STATISTICS—FALL RIVER SCHOOLS.

	This year.	Last year.
Whole number registered in schools,	7,581	6,968
Average attendance,	3,821	3,545
Per cent. of attendance, based on enrollment,	50.1	51
Per cent. of attendance, based on average number belonging,	89.6	89
Per cent. of absence,	10.4	11
Number of sittings,	5,170	4,928
Number of pupils over 15 years of age,	220	149
<i>High School.</i>		
Number of pupils registered in High School,	159	162
Average attendance,	144	150
Per cent. of attendance, based on enrollment,	90.5	93
Per cent. of attendance, based on average number belonging,	100	97
Number received during the year,	74	78
Number graduated,	21	29
Average age of those remaining,	17.3	17
<i>Grammar Schools.</i>		
Number of pupils registered in Grammar Schools,	984	923
Average attendance,	628	591
Per cent. of attendance, based on enrollment,	63.8	64
Per cent. of attendance, based on average number belonging,	93.5	93
Average age of those remaining,	12.5	12.5
<i>Intermediate Schools.</i>		
Number of pupils registered in Intermediate Schools,	1,253	1,124
Average attendance,	762	684
Per cent. of attendance, based on enrollment,	60.8.	61
Per cent. of attendance, based on average number belonging,	94.3	90
<i>Primary Schools.</i>		
Number of pupils registered in Primary Schools,	3,738	3,106
Average attendance,	1,879	1,723
Per cent. of attendance, based on enrollment,	50	50
Per cent. of attendance, based on average number belonging,	88.1	90
<i>Mixed Schools.</i>		
Number of pupils in Mixed Schools,	376	435
Average attendance,	223	226
Per cent. of attendance, based on enrollment,	59.3	52
Per cent. of attendance, based on average number belonging,	76.1	84
<i>Factory School.</i>		
Number of pupils registered in Factory School,	1,051	1,218
Average attendance, per term,	185	171

Further on the superintendent says :

" By referring to the summary of statistics, you will observe that the whole number of different persons enrolled in our schools is 7,581, while the average attendance is but 3,821, or 50.4 per cent. of the number registered. The per cent. last year was 51.

" If we compare our average attendance with the number of persons in the city between five and fifteen years of age, we find the result to be nearly the same. The number of persons in the city between the above ages, is 7,096. The average attendance is 3,821, or 54 per cent. nearly of the children of school age within our limits.

" The per cent. of attendance in the county is nearly 69, while that of the whole State is 73. Fall River, according to this exhibit, is 15 per cent. below that of the county, and 19 lower than that of the State.

" There is no subject connected with the schools of more importance than the attendance of the pupils. There need be but little solicitude for those who attend, but the gravest alarm may very properly be felt for those children who are outside their walls. It is encouraging to know that most of our children of school age have been enrolled in our schools, more or less of the time, during the year. For this result much credit is due to the labors of our truant officer, and also to the coöperation of our mill agents in sending out those minors in their employ, of scholastic age, to attend school.

" But their attendance is not continuous, and they are not receiving the amount of schooling necessary to make them intelligent voters on the great questions agitating the country. A republican form of government rests upon the intelligence of the people,—their power to exercise intelligently the elective franchise; but if the necessary intelligence is not acquired, is not the stability of the government thereby endangered? How are the wrongs to be righted, and the evils eradicated, which prevail on all sides, unless the children be trained and taught in our schools, so that they may grow up to be intelligent men and women? How is the national or state government to become purified in character, or elevated in tone, unless the people, from whom the rulers are chosen, receive in our schools intellectual and moral training? The subject is a very important one, and it should receive the attention of our citizens generally, for the amount of low attendance in our schools will tell upon our city morally, socially and intellectually. Not only that, but our industries will be affected unfavorably.

" Many of our juvenile criminals begin their career by absenting themselves from school. The next step is truancy, in its incipient

stages, which soon becomes confirmed. After a very short time, usually, they commit some crime, and soon after we find them spending their time within the prison walls. This class is increasing in our midst, and in tracing many of these cases, non-attendance at school has usually been found to be their first offence.

“The following items taken from the summary of statistics for the year are interesting, and worthy of careful examination. They show, perhaps, in a more condensed form and forcible manner, the nature of our school attendance, than I am in any other way able to present:—

	Av. Attendance.
Pupils registered in High School,	159 144
in Grammar School,	984 628
in Intermediate School,	1,253 762
in Primary School,	3,758 1,879
in Mixed School,	386 223
Time required to complete High School course,	4 years.
to complete Grammar School course,	4 “
to complete Intermediate School course,	2 “
to complete Primary School course,	2 “

“As there are 3,758 pupils registered in our primary schools, and but 1,253 in the intermediate grade, or three in the former to one in the latter, and the time required to complete each course the same,—two years,—it follows that every three pupils in the primary grade furnish but one for promotion to the intermediate schools. Or, in other words, two pupils out of every three leave our schools before promotion to the next higher grade. This may seem a startling announcement, but the results of this and many former years will bear me out in making this statement. Two-thirds, then, of our school population receive no instruction in school beyond the primary grade, except what they may receive in the factory or evening schools later in life.

“The course of study in the primary schools consists of qualifying the pupils to read in the third reader, to spell the words in their reading lessons, and in arithmetic to commit the tables, and perform simple exercises in the four fundamental rules, and the simplest operations in fractions. This is the maximum education which two-thirds of our children receive.

The government rests on the intelligence of the people, but will not such a meagre amount endanger its form, its grandeur and its perpetuity? Are we safe with such a state of affairs? Are we not like the foolish man who built his house upon the sand, and the

rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew, and beat upon that house, and it fell, and great was the fall of it?"

"Having compared the number of pupils registered in our intermediate schools with those in the primary, let us now compare those in the grammar grade with the number in the intermediate schools.

"As the time required to complete the grammar course is four years, and there being registered 984 pupils, the average for each year of the course is one fourth of 984, or 246. The intermediate course requiring two years, and there being enrolled in those schools 1,253, gives an average for each year of the course of one-half of 1,253, or 626. Hence it follows, that every 626 pupils in the intermediate grade, furnish but 246 graduates for the grammar schools, or, in round numbers, five intermediate pupils furnish but two for promotion to the grammar grade. And it also follows that it requires $7\frac{1}{2}$ primary pupils to furnish one for the grammar schools.

"Let us examine this subject a little farther, by comparing the high school with the grammar grade. The time required to complete either course is the same, hence the number of pupils registered in each will give the ratio: High school, 159; grammar schools, 984. The per cent. of enrollment in the high school is but 16 per cent. of that in the grammar grade, hence it takes six pupils of the lower grade to promote one into the high school, or 47 primary pupils to furnish one to enter the high school.

"Those pupils of the high school who intend to graduate at the close of the present term, being 24 in number, are but 15 per cent. of the enrollment, hence it requires 7 pupils of the enrollment to furnish one graduate; or, to put this in another form, only about one-third of those who enter, graduate, and two-thirds leave before the completion of the course, and a very large percentage leave during the first year.

Now this low attendance upon our schools does not argue against the efficiency of the teachers or their instruction, any more than the poor attendance on churches on Sundays reflects upon the ministrations of the pulpits. It only shows us that the people do not fully realize the advantages of an education which our schools offer free to all. Poverty debars many families from giving their children as much schooling as they would like to have them obtain. There is no surer way of improving our city in every respect, materially, socially, intellectually and morally, than by increasing the attendance of pupils at school."

In relation to the factory school the superintendent says:

"The whole number registered for the year is 1,051, while the average attendance for each term is 185, a little better than last

year. Quite a number of children of this class, owing to the lack of room in the Anawan Street house, were permitted to attend in other schools the required time, according to law."

The following table gives the number of children sent from certain mills to the factory school in Fall River since 1869:

Number of Children Received into the Factory School from each Mill, and Number of Cards Issued.

M I L L S .	1869.		1870.		1871.		1872.		1873.	
	Entered.	Cards issued.								
Merchants, . . .	69	62	84	70	82	80	46	43	59	52
Granite, . . .	47	45	45	43	48	46	68	61	72	64
Union, . . .	86	80	89	77	90	83	58	57	51	43
Troy Manuf ^g Co., .	63	57	50	48	53	51	50	47	45	36
Robeson, . . .	28	26	25	24	33	29	27	25	24	21
Davol, . . .	28	26	28	26	23	22	20	18	22	20
Durfee, . . .	68	63	53	50	84	79	90	86	88	79
Tecumseh, . . .	29	29	27	25	24	21	36	35	44	41
Woollen, . . .	10	10	11	11	10	10	10	10	9	9
Pocasset, . . .	43	41	53	48	34	31	22	21	28	24
Quequechan, . . .	40	36	52	51	54	50	28	26	34	20
Watuppa, . . .	26	26	26	25	33	33	29	26	29	25
Robeson Pt. Works, .	36	35	32	30	33	32	20	20	—	10
Anawan, . . .	30	26	24	21	19	17	9	9	17	14
Metacomet, . . .	56	51	50	48	45	42	33	33	38	30
Linen, . . .	143	134	138	132	108	108	68	67	76	65
Massasoit, . . .	25	23	25	22	15	10	6	4	8	7
Globe Pt. Works, .	29	26	19	15	15	13	7	4	12	9
Thread Mills, . . .	3	3	3	3	5	4	3	3	3	3
Mt. Hope, . . .	2	2	6	6	5	5	—	—	1	1
Amer. Pt. Works, .	3	3	65	59	71	68	75	75	88	83
F. R. Manuf ^g Co., .	—	—	21	21	26	25	29	26	38	34
Cigar Manufactory, .	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cooper's Shop, .	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Miscellaneous, . . .	—	—	22	17	18	10	30	16	10	6
Harness Shops, . . .	—	—	3	3	—	—	2	2	9	9
Wampanoag, . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	4
Stafford, . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	15
Crescent, . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	27	20
Borden, . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	33	26
Slade, . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	7
Mechanics', . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
	864	804	965	879	927	869	766	712	913	778

Mr. Geo. E. Hood, superintendent of schools in Lawrence, publishes a very instructive table, giving for the term from February 3, to June 27, 1873 (21 weeks), the whole

number admitted; number received from other schools; number neither absent nor tardy; number under five years of age; number attending two weeks or more; number belonging twenty weeks; average number attending two weeks or more; average attendance; per cent. of attendance; number over fifteen years; average age; number promoted during or at close of term.

The whole number admitted was,	4,138
From other schools,		90
Number belonging two weeks or more,		3,556
" " twenty-one weeks or full term,		2,140
Average number attending two weeks or more,		2,760
Average attendance,		2,506
Number over fifteen,		130
Number promoted during or at close of term,		918

The law of 1873 is printed in the superintendent's report, and the following comments made thereupon:—

"The frequent changes made by the legislature in relation to the attendance of children at school, and in relation to the employment of children in manufacturing and mechanical establishments, embarrass very much all that are affected by the law, and that desire to see its provisions complied with. If there were not other manifest sources of weakness in the law, these changes alone would almost defeat the object aimed at.

"A good law that has some degree of permanence is more serviceable than a better law that is continually being changed. These changes are sometimes made with so little reference to, and so out of harmony with, other existing statutes upon the same or kindred subjects, that if it were possible, one might think they were made hastily, and without consultation with those whose experience and observation upon the subject enables them to speak understandingly in reference to it. The educational interests of the children and of the public would be better served than they now are, if children were required to attend school throughout the entire school age, and could only be withdrawn from school during this time on account of their own ill-health, or because they had already obtained a certain fixed amount of knowledge. *The schools of this city, in common with those of other manufacturing places, are unavoidably disturbed to a considerable extent by the constant coming and going of the children between the schools and the mills.*"

On pages 23 and 24, twelfth annual report of the board of education, Horace Mann, in giving the statistics of attendance and non-attendance, of the year 1849, says:—

“ This is always a sad chapter in the year-book of the schools. It presents a case where reason is not a remedy; at least, reason and argument have as yet failed to work a reform. Slight improvements are exhibited from year to year, but there is ground to fear that the disease is too chronic and deep-seated to yield to anything but more energetic treatment. My own belief and hope are, that a government which has so far advanced in taking care of itself and its people as to pass quarantine laws to prevent the importation of physical disease, and the infections that result in natural death, will soon be wise enough to practice that higher and more indispensable form of self-preservation which consists in sanitary regulations against spiritual distempers and the moral death, that come from the ignorance and vicious abandonment of childhood and youth. Until that time shall arrive, it will be the duty of all officers connected with the cause of education with stern fidelity to expose the delinquencies of those parents who neglect to send their children to the schools provided for them, however painful or humiliating to the pride of the State such exposure may be.

“ The average attendance for the last year’s summer term was 123,046; and the average attendance for the last year’s winter term was 143,878. Take the whole number belonging to the State, who were between the ages of four and sixteen (214,436), and subtract from this the estimated number of those who attend academies and private schools, and who do not depend upon common schools for their education,—say 12,000,—and there will still remain 204,436 who are wholly or mainly dependent upon the common schools for all the education they will ever receive. The whole number registered as belonging to the summer schools last year was 165,132, and the whole number registered as belonging to the winter schools was 185,-000. But of these, 3,656 were under the age of four years, and 9,977 were over the age of sixteen years. Deduct those under four from the summer, and those over sixteen from the winter schools (because those under four very rarely attend school in the winter, and those over sixteen as rarely in summer), and it thus appears that the whole number between four and sixteen, who belonged to the summer schools, during any part of their term, was only 161,476, and the whole number between the same ages who belonged to the winter schools, during any part of their term, was only 175,023. Hence it also appears, that of those supposed to be wholly or mainly depend-

ent upon the common schools for all the school education they will ever obtain, there was an unbroken and total absence in summer of 42,960, and in winter of 29,413,—that is, there was this number of children, who, respectively, during the summer and winter terms, were not brought for a day within the influences of our schools.

"But another and a scarcely less deplorable phase of the subject remains to be presented. Many of those whose names were enrolled upon the register book of the schools, have a flagrant amount of absences to atone for. The average attendance in summer was but 123,046, and in winter but 143,878. Hence, of the 204,436 children supposed to be dependent upon our common schools for their education, there was an *average* absence during summer of 81,390, and an *average* absence during winter of 60,558.

"In strictness, too, a still further reduction should be made from the number of attendants, both on account of the 3,656 children, under the age of four years, who were enrolled in the summer schools, and on account of the 9,977 above sixteen years of age, who were enrolled in the winter schools. But I forbear; for it cannot be necessary to add another repulsive lineament to the deformities of a picture already so frightful."

ARGUMENT.

From the statistical testimony taken by the United States census marshals, by the returns of school committees, by the reports of superintendents, and from the organization of and condition of our schools, as well as from the general observation of educators, the fact is established beyond doubt that thousands of children here in Massachusetts, surrounded with the best educational facilities, are growing up in ignorance.

Before any method can be devised by which this growing evil may be overcome, the causes must be found, and, if possible, eradicated, or else some arbitrary power must intervene, and, by artificial processes, overcome the operating causes.

The incontrovertible cause toward which this combined testimony points, is the *poverty of the parents*. The love of one's offspring is one of the strongest of human passions. Parents, as a rule, will deny themselves of the necessities of life for the sake of their little ones. It is true that there are some so hardened by the crushing influences of poverty, or shrunken by the narrowing influences of avarice, that they will use the holy office of parent for the base purposes of gain.

The sale of their children by the peasantry of England in the fifteenth century, as well as the like conditions in our own sister States, under the demoralizing influences of chattel slavery, in the nineteenth, are evidences of the possibilities of human degradation, under circumstances wherein the baser nature rules the human, and not the natural operation of the human heart. We shrink with horror at every recital of child torture or outrage. In the annals of crime, there is nothing so appalling as those instances where the heart of the father or mother seems possessed with a hatred of its own, and wreaks upon its innocence outrageous physical torture or mental deformity.

This feeling is so strong, that many well-meaning men have answered my appeal for legal interference against the employment of children, with an outburst of indignation against those parents who would permit their little ones to spend their days of childhood amid the dangers to body, mind and soul, of a cotton or woollen mill.

During years of experience, investigation and observation, covering visits to nearly all of the manufacturing cities and towns in this Commonwealth, officially and unofficially, and in a way under both circumstances that gave me the entry to the homes of, and an opportunity to form an acquaintance with, the factory operatives, I have met with but few, as compared with the whole number, who did not hate the circumstances that compelled them to send their children to the mill.

The all-pervading power of custom in the old countries has somewhat checked the natural flow of human sympathies, so that it became half natural to expect to derive some help from the earnings of the child, and this feeling is fully stimulated by the selfish interests of the employers. "Men with growing families" is the standard demand in many of our manufacturing centres. Indeed, so well is this need understood, that it is made an excuse for the discharge of persons who have made themselves obnoxious to factory rule * by the

* Mr. Samuel Moores, a factory operative, sixty years of age, extolled by his overseer and by the superintendent as a very skilful, competent and faithful operative, was discharged, with the explanation that his employer "wished men with growing families."

a lveacy of ten-hour legislation for minors and women, and half-time schools for children.

Yet with all this power of custom, demand and necessity, the factory operatives stand as a unit for reduced hours of labor for women and minors, and for the half-time system of England; and, whenever they are sufficiently congregated or free to act independently, they never fail to express themselves as freemen should, at the ballot box. Their poverty is the motive power that takes the child to the factory. Often the child is brought to the mill with the mother or father, for there is no one at home to care for him. When in Fall River recently, I visited many of the factory tenements, before school hours. In some, I found little children, two and four years of age, half dressed, father and mother at work, and the only care these little ones would have until the noon hour, if they receive any, would be the visit of some superannuated old lady.

In another place, I found a little babe, of less than two years of age, under the care of a girl of six. These are not exceptions, but the rule.

The testimony of a mule spinner, given before the Bureau of Statistics of Labor (p. 476, Senate Document 150—1871), gives so vivid a description of the usual factory life, and as that report is out of print, I reproduce it here, and vouch for the correctness of the description.

"Am English born, and have been a spinner since ten years of age; have a wife and two children; herself and a child, 12 years old, work in the mill, both weaving; the wife, with girl's help, tends ten looms, running 156 picks per minute; some tend eight, some seven, if without child help. Wife and child leave the house four days of the week at 6.20 in the morning, and do not return till about 7.30 at night. Wednesdays and Saturdays they leave home at 5.30 A. M., and on Saturdays get home at about 4.15 P. M., so that they are absent from home on four days of each week thirteen hours ten minutes; Wednesday of each week fourteen hours; Saturday of each week ten hours forty-five minutes, making for absence from home each week, seventy-seven hours and twenty-five minutes. Of this time they occupy about three hours going and returning, and four and one-half in eating dinner at the mill, as they never go home to do that.

"For breakfast we manage thus: I get up at 5 o'clock, and wife and children lie till I get the meal ready, then they get up, we eat and

start for the mill. *Question.* Do you mean to say that you get the breakfast? *Answer.* Yes, sir. *Q.* Who gets the dinner? *A.* We make it and put it in the pails over night, because we have no time in the morning. I take my dinner to the mill and eat it there, then I run home and do a little chores, chop wood, and the like of that, to get ready for the night. I have bread and meat and a little pie, the same as wife has. I get home at seven o'clock, and help along supper until she gets home, and then it will take us both until half-past seven to get ready to commence on the supper, and we get through supper about eight o'clock. *Q.* In the summer time you have a little daylight, and in the winter none at all? *A.* Yes, sir. *Q.* Does what you now describe agree with your mill life in England, before you came here? *A.* No; in England we could go to our dinners. *Q.* Wife, child and all? *A.* The wife didn't work all the time. When she did, she went home to dinner. A good many there keep the old folks at home, and they generally do the work. *Q.* Is this the common way in which operatives in your city live? *A.* Yes, sir. *Q.* All of them? *A.* Yes, sir. *Q.* Through all the mills? *A.* Yes, sir; those that have wives that go to the mill. *Q.* They all live pretty much as you now describe? *A.* Yes, sir; all the difference will be, that some of them put up their dinners in the morning, and we put up ours at night. The dinner stands in the pails from the night time till the next noon. *Q.* What time do you get home on Saturday afternoon? *A.* Four o'clock: we leave off at quarter before four. *Q.* How do you employ yourselves on Sundays? Give a general description of the life of factory people on Sunday. *A.* Some different from others, of course; I generally lie in bed until about seven o'clock Sundays. Then we both get up and get the children ready for Sunday-school and send them to school, and then it takes wife and me about all the time to wash, clean and scrub up the house, and cook the extra dinner for Sunday, so we can have a comfortable meal. We have warm dinners on Sunday. In the afternoon we sometimes take a nap. Then I get supper and take a walk round and get myself ready for Monday morning again. *Q.* You describe the common factory life on Sunday? *A.* So far as I am concerned, it is about so. *Q.* Why do you not attend church on Sunday? *A.* I really have not time, because if I went to church, my woman would have all the work to do, and it would take her all the day Sunday, and that would be seven days' work, and I would be resting and she working, so I stay at home and help her, and we get through just in time for dinner, and then we take a nap and take a walk in the afternoon. *Q.* Was that your way in England? *A.* Yes, sir. *Q.* You didn't attend church there? *A.* No, sir. *Q.* Do the factory

people of England, as a general thing, attend church? *A.* No, sir; I do not suppose they do; the majority do not, any way. They are too tired, I suppose, though when we had ten hours a day we had considerable more time than we have now. In England, we had even more, because we had no wood to chop. We burnt coals, and we could kindle them with paper, and then we had taps in the sink and got water from them, but here we have to fetch water; we have to fetch it from one hundred to two hundred yards in some places. There we had taps on the sink for cleaning water and drinking. I don't think they have taps even in boarding-houses in our city. *Q.* Your children attend Sunday-school? *A.* Yes, sir. *Q.* When does your wife do the mending for the family? *A.* She does it at night after we have had supper. *Q.* Did you marry a factory girl? *A.* Yes, sir; she was brought up in a factory from eight years of age. *Q.* What opportunities had she had at any time during her life to acquire a knowledge of household work? *A.* I don't know that she had much. Factory girls can learn cooking, washing, mending and household work after they get home from mill, and at no other time. I don't know as they are as apt at these things as out-of-mill girls who live at home or service. They cook plain food pretty well. My wife lets out the washing (she has to), at seventy cents a dozen. I have my youngest child at home; she is ten years old; she gets her own breakfast from what we leave for her on the table. Then she washes herself, or comes to the mill, and we wash her. At a little before nine o'clock she goes to school, and then comes to me at the house when I go from the mill after twelve o'clock to job round a little. She eats for dinner what is left in my pail. I go back to mill, leaving her at the house till about two o'clock, when she again goes to school. After school she comes to me at the mill and I give her the house-key. She goes home, unlocks and waits for us to come home. My wife has worked in a mill all the time since marriage, except when confined. Our children took care of themselves after about five years old. Before that, grandmother looked after them. That was when we were in England. She is now dead. *Q.* How near their time of confinement have you known pregnant women to work in a mill? *A.* To within six weeks, or much less, and to return to their looms in four weeks after confinement. But that is not common; ten or twelve weeks is more common on each side of confinement. *Q.* At what age of children do mothers leave them to go back to the mill? *A.* English people leave them from five to twelve months old. *Q.* Is what you describe the general custom of factory parents? *A.* Yes, sir; they leave them the same. The largest portion of English married people work in the mill and do as I do. *Q.* Do they do this all the year round? *A.* Yes, sir; winter and

summer. *Q.* But in the winter it is dark before five o'clock p. m.; what does a child at home do till the parent gets home after seven o'clock? *A.* It lights the lamp and waits; mine does.

This man is a kind father and good citizen, and hoped for better times. *Will they come?* We fear not, for him. But the children are the wards of the State. They can and must be saved from the brutalizing influence of ignorance and want, or else their testimony will be given in worse grammar, and not before a bureau of investigation, but before a terrified and at last an awakened populace.

It may be easy to stigmatize this as the dream of a fanatic, but clear eyes have long seen the danger. In another place will be found the opinions of Horace Mann, as given in the third annual report of the Board of Education, 1840.

As poverty cannot be abolished by any legislative decree, it behooves the law-makers to devise some method that will act as a counterbalance to its baneful influence. There are two elements over which the general court has control: "*The hours of labor and the schooling of children.*" Legislation upon these subjects is no novelty. The founders of our institutions recognized this principle, and, as early as 1650, adopted the following:—

"Forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular belief and benefit to any Commonwealth; and whereas, many parents and masters are too indulgent and negligent of their duty in that kind, it is therefore ordered by this court and the authority thereof, that the selectmen of every town in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families, as not to endeavor to teach by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein."

In the May session of the general assembly of Connecticut for 1813, coterminous with the incorporation of companies for manufacturing purposes, an act was passed to secure the elementary instruction of children employed in factories and manufacturing establishments, which, in the edition of the statutes of 1838, is embraced in the seventh and eighth sections

of the act relating to masters and servants and apprentices, and of which the following is a synopsis :—

"Section 7 requires the president and directors of all factories, which are now or hereafter shall be legally incorporated, and the proprietor or proprietors of all other manufacturing establishments in this State to cause the children employed in such factory or establishment, in whatever manner bound, to be taught to read and write, and instructed in the first four rules of arithmetic, provided the term of services shall be of so long duration that such instruction can be given.

"Section 8 provides for a board of visitors, to be composed of the civil authority and selectmen, for and within such towns in which such factories or manufacturing establishments do or may exist, or a committee by them appointed, whose duty it shall be, in the month of January, annually, or at such other time or times as they shall appoint, carefully to examine, and to ascertain whether the requisitions of this act * * * * * be duly observed; any violation thereof, which may be discovered, to be reported 'to the next county court within the county within which the same shall have occurred; and thereupon, such county court shall cause' such reported offenders 'to appear before such court to answer in the premises'; and if found guilty of not duly attending to the education of children by them respectively employed, as is by this act required, or that due attention is not paid to preserve the morals of such children, it shall be the duty of such court, and they are hereby authorized at their discretion either to discharge the indentures or contracts relating to such minors, and by which they may be bound to render services in such establishments, or they may impose such fine, or forfeiture upon the proprietor or proprietors of such establishments, as they may consider just and reasonable, provided the same shall not exceed the sum of one hundred dollars."

This is claimed to be the earliest legislative movement in behalf of children employed in factories and manufacturing establishments.

In his report on the school laws, the secretary of the board of commissioners of common schools, Connecticut, May, 1841, says :—

"The amount of instruction secured, or aimed to be secured, is altogether too small for any person, who, at the age of manhood, is to share in the privileges, duties and honors of society. The health

and physical education of all children under fourteen years of age, should be secured, by limiting the period of their daily employment to eight hours, and entirely prohibiting their employment at night."

Connecticut, though justly proud of her early attention to educational matters, is not alone in attempts to avert the danger of an *ignorant sovereignty*. Nearly all of the New England States have established precedents for further legislation in this direction. Massachusetts, under the inspiration of her great educator, Horace Mann, sought early to impress upon the people the full importance of their duty. In 1836, the Hon. Jas. G. Carter, chairman of the committee on education, made a report to the house of representatives of that year, in which, after referring to the growth of the manufacturing interest, and the consequent change of employment and condition of large classes of the people, says:—

"Two principal causes, founded upon the animal and imperious wants of our nature, and upon self-interest, that strongest of motives, politically speaking, are in constant operation to frustrate and prevent that universal education, which our institutions suppose and require, within the sphere of large manufacturing establishments.
* * * * Labor being dearer in this country than it is in any other with which we are brought in competition in manufacturing, operates as a constant inducement to manufacturers to employ female labor, and the labor of children, to the exclusion of men's labor, because they can be had cheaper."

After describing the condition of the families who made up the factory population of that time, as those that have been unfortunate or from some cause unsuccessful in agriculture or other employments, and who despair of obtaining more than a comfortable support or a bare subsistence; or of families formed around the establishments on the strength of the then present prospect of gaining a certain support; or by those young people who depend solely upon their daily wages and have nothing to expect but what they can obtain from day to day or from week to week, he says:—

"Of course, when such families, numerous and indigent, as they generally are, begin to increase, and when their wants begin to press hard upon their scanty means of comfort, or perhaps even of neces-

sary subsistence, there is a strong interest and an urgent motive, to seek *constant* employment for their children, at a very early age, if the wages obtained can aid them even but little in bearing the burden of their support.

"These two causes or principles of interest, in the *employer* on the one hand, and in the *employed* on the other, are operating, silently, perhaps, but steadily and powerfully, to deprive young females particularly, and young children of both sexes, in a large and increasing class in the community, of those means and opportunities of mental and moral development and cultivation, which are essential to their becoming the intelligent mothers and educators of the next generation, and good citizens of the republic."

This committee reported the following Act, which was passed in the same year, and amended in 1838:—

AN ACT to provide for the better Instruction of Youth employed in Manufacturing Establishments.

SECT. 1. From and after the first day of April, in the year eighteen hundred and thirty-seven, no child under the age of fifteen years shall be employed to labor in any manufacturing establishment, unless such child shall have attended some public or private day school where instruction is given by a teacher qualified [*i. e.*, qualified to instruct in "orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good behavior,"] according to the first section of the twenty-third chapter of the Revised Statutes, at least three months of the twelve months next preceding any and every year in which such child shall be so employed.

SECT. 2. The owner, agent or superintendent of any manufacturing establishment, who shall employ any child in such establishment contrary to the provisions of this act, shall forfeit the sum of fifty dollars for each offence, to be recovered by indictment, to the use of common schools in the towns respectively where said establishment may be situated. [Approved by the Governor, April 16, 1836.]

The following is the amendment:—

AN ACT in addition to an Act to provide for the better Instruction of Youth employed in Manufacturing Establishments.

No person shall be liable to the penalty provided in the act passed the sixteenth day of April, in the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-six, entitled "An Act to provide for the better

instruction of youth employed in manufacturing establishments," who shall in each year, before employing any child under the age of fifteen years, as in said act mentioned, obtain and preserve a certificate signed by the instructor of the school where such child attended at least three months out of the twelve months preceding, as in said act is provided, that such child has received the instruction in said act intended to be secured; the truth of which certificate shall be sworn to by the said instructor before some justice of the peace for the county where such instructor resides; and upon said certificate shall also be certified the fact of such oath or affirmation by such justice."

The report of the Hon. Horace Mann, secretary of the Board of Education, January, 1840, contains the following observations upon this law:—

"It is obvious, that the consent of two parties is necessary to the infliction of this law, and to the infliction of this highest species of injustice upon the children whom it was designed to protect. Not only must the employer pursue a course of action, by which the godlike powers and capacities of the human soul are wrought into thorough-made products of ignorance, and misery and vice, with as much certainty and celerity as his raw materials of wood or cotton are wrought into fabrics for the market by his own machinery; but the parent also must be willing to convert the holy relation of parent and child into the unholy one of master and slave, and to sell his child into ransomless bondage for the pittance of money he can earn. Yet, strange to say, there are many parents, not only of our immigrant, but of our native population, so lost to the sacred nature of the relation they sustain towards the children whom they have brought into all the solemn realities of existence, that they go from town to town, seeking opportunities to consign them to unbroken bodily toil, although it involves all the deprivation of all the means of intellectual and moral growth:—thus pandering to their own vicious appetites, by adopting the most efficient measures to make their offspring as vicious as themselves."

In 1842, the hours of labor for children under twelve years was limited to ten per day with a penalty of fifty dollars. In 1855, eighteen weeks' schooling was allowed to all under twelve, and twelve weeks to all between twelve and fifteen. In 1866, the following law was passed. It was by far the best law we have ever had:—

AN ACT in relation to the Employment of Children in Manufacturing Establishments.

Be it enacted, &c., as follows:

SECT. 1. No child under the age of ten years shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment within this Commonwealth, and no child between the age of ten and fourteen years shall be so employed, unless he has attended some public or private day school under teachers approved by the school committee of the place in which such school is kept, at least six months during the year next preceding such employment; nor shall such employment continue unless such child shall attend school at least six months in each and every year.

SECT. 2. The owner, agent or superintendent of any manufacturing establishment, who knowingly employs a child in violation of the preceding section shall forfeit a sum not exceeding fifty dollars for each offence.

SECT. 3. No child under the age of fourteen years shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment within this Commonwealth, more than eight hours in any one day.

SECT. 4. Any parent or guardian who allows or consents to the employment of a child, in violation of the first section of this act, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding fifty dollars for each offence.

SECT. 5. The governor, with the advice and consent of the council, may, at his discretion, instruct the constable of the Commonwealth and his deputies, to enforce the provisions of chapter forty-two of the General Statutes, and all other laws regulating the employment of children in manufacturing establishments, and to prosecute all violations of the same. [*Approved May 28, 1866.*]

This law remained upon the statute-book until the spring of 1867, when it was repealed by the passage of the following:

AN ACT in relation to the Schooling and Hours of Labor of Children employed in Manufacturing and Mechanical Establishments.

Be it enacted, &c., as follows:

SECT. 1. No child under the age of ten years shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment within this Commonwealth; and no child between the ages of ten and fifteen years shall be so employed, unless he has attended some public or private day school, under teachers approved by the school committee of the place in which such school is kept, at least three months during the year next preceding such employment: *provided*, said child shall have lived within the Commonwealth during the preceding six

months; nor shall such employment continue, unless such child shall attend school at least three months in each and every year; and *provided*, that tuition of three hours per day in a public or private day school, approved by the school committee of the place in which such school is kept, during a term of six months, shall be deemed the equivalent of three months' attendance at a school kept in accordance with the customary hours of tuition; and no time less than sixty days of actual schooling shall be accounted as three months, and no time less than one hundred and twenty half-days of actual schooling shall be deemed an equivalent of three months.

SECT. 2. No child under the age of fifteen years shall be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment more than sixty hours in one week.

SECT. 3. Any owner, agent, superintendent or overseer of any manufacturing or mechanical establishment who shall knowingly employ, or permit to be employed, any child in violation of the preceding sections, and any parent or guardian who allows or consents to such employment, shall, for such offence, forfeit the sum of fifty dollars.

SECT. 4. It shall be the duty of the constable of the Commonwealth to specially detail one of his deputies to see that the provisions of this act, and all other laws regulating the employment of children or minors in manufacturing or mechanical establishments, are complied with, and to prosecute offences against the same; and he shall report annually to the governor all proceedings under this act: and nothing in this section shall be so construed as to prohibit any person from prosecuting such offences.

SECT. 5. Chapter two hundred and seventy-three of the acts of the year eighteen hundred and sixty-six is hereby repealed: *provided*, this act shall not affect any proceedings now pending.

SECT. 6. This act shall take effect sixty days from its passage.

The following is the law of 1873:—

AN ACT relating to the attendance of Children at School.

Be it enacted, &c., as follows:

SECT. 1. Section one of chapter forty-one of the General Statutes is amended to read as follows:

Every person having under his control a child between the ages of eight and twelve years, shall annually cause such child to attend some public day school in the city or town in which he resides, at least twenty weeks; and for every neglect of such duty the party offending shall forfeit to the use of the public schools of such city or town a sum not exceeding twenty dollars; but if the party so

neglecting, was not able, by reason of poverty, to send such child to school, or such child has attended a private day school, approved by the school committee of such city or town for a like period of time, or is regularly attending a public or private day school, known as a half-time school, also approved by them, or that such child has been otherwise furnished with the means of education for a like period of time, or has already acquired the branches of learning taught in the public schools, or if his physical or mental condition is such as to render such attendance inexpedient or impracticable, the penalty before mentioned shall not be incurred: *provided*, that no objection shall be made by the school committee to any such school on account of the religious teaching in said school.

SECT. 2. The second section of chapter forty-one of the General Statutes is amended to read as follows:

The truant officers and the school committee of the several cities and towns shall vigilantly inquire into all cases of neglect of the duty prescribed in the preceding section, and ascertain the reasons, if any, therefor; and such truant officers, or any of them, shall, when so directed by the school committee, prosecute, in the name of the city or town, any person liable to the penalty provided for in the preceding section.

Justices of police or district courts, trial justices, trial justices of juvenile offenders, and judges of probate shall have jurisdiction within their respective counties of the offences described in this act.

[Approved May 12, 1873.]

The past thirty-eight years, since the passage of the first law upon the employment and schooling of children, have witnessed the great growth of the manufacture of textiles. Then, a native population filled our factory towns. The weave-room was the Mecca of the ambitious farmer's daughter,—a Mecca to visit for a few months or years at most, and then return. The old New England pride of education was sufficient compulsory law for them. They were factory girls one day, teacher or wife the next. Theirs were longer days of labor, but they had more privileges and less discipline.

The agent and the spinner sat in the same church; belonged, perhaps, to the same masonic lodge. The children went to the same school. The deacons of the church were overseers, and a certain public sentiment sustained the operative in a larger freedom.

The hands (workmen) were expected to vote as the head (agent) directed, but as both were generally more truly united in interest, it was in most cases less hardship than now.

Then, the spinner might leave, and become carpenter, teamster, blacksmith or grocer. Now, we have that dreadful thing, a fixed factory population,—not fixed as to locality, but as to handicraft. A hand!! A hind!! An operative!! Brought up in the mill from childhood; lulled to sleep by buzz of the spindles, or the incessant thud of the loom; short of stature, mostly without beard, narrow-chested, somewhat stooped; a walk not like the sailor's but equally characteristic; not muscular, but tough; flesh with a tinge as though often greased; cheeks thin, eyes sharp,—a man pretty quick to observe, and quick to act, impulsive and generous, with a good deal of inward rebellion and outward submission. A lover of freedom, but not to be humbugged with non-interference theories unless it touches his beer; an advocate of short hours by instinct. *Except to obey*, the agent and overseer are nothing to him. There is no public sentiment or societary influence to protect him except that of his fellows. They have a union without organization, and are willing to deny themselves to help their class. They know there is nothing before them, but to spin or weave. If they marry, the wife may help, and if there are children, they will be of help, "if they can raise them."

Of course, this does not describe all, for there are different nationalities, each with their peculiar characteristics,—the Protestant English and the Catholic Irish and French-Canadian, the latter of whom are in one respect like the operatives of forty years ago; they work a year or two and then go home. They are mostly very ignorant, yet their children, when they can be reached, learn quickly.

With such a population, having the past as a bitter memory of wrong, or the ever-present demoralization of want, their home for the most part within the factory walls, with no Yankee hobbies to ride, or to broaden the scope of their thought, they stand before us as the problem for our institutions to solve. Let them understand they are free men with the largest liberty of speech and of action. Let them under-

stand that their children are employed, not to help increase their meagre earnings, but because they are *cheap*; that there is no philanthropy that inspires the demand for "men with growing families"; that an *education* will give their children a better chance, and increase their own earnings. Then no compulsion will be needed for the many, but only for the few, whose souls have been made sordid by their surroundings, and whose natures have been narrowed by their limited opportunities.

To meet the wants of this population and these conditions, we have practically, the same tenor of law and system of education as that which obtained forty years ago. The law of 1866 was a step in the right direction, inasmuch as it established a minimum of age at which children could be employed, gave six months' schooling, and provided a means of enforcement.

But this law was repealed by that of 1867, and even that so modified by subsequent law as to place the limit of age to eight years instead of twelve or ten, and to limit its protection to those between eight and twelve years of age. None of these laws have ever been enforced, yet enough has been done to establish possibilities of success under a law similar to that of the English Factory Acts.

In Fall River the strong public sentiment in favor of the ten hour law has caused the establishment of a factory school, and it is often erroneously thought that this single school provided for all of the children employed in the mills in that city. By the report of the superintendent of schools, Mr. Wm. Connell, it appears that the total number entering these schools in one year was 1,051—probably not more than one-third of the children employed.

At a clam-bake given the factory children by the manufacturers of that city, about three thousand participated, one thousand each day of the three days' carnival.

The Naumkeag school at Salem, the result of the influence of General Oliver, and of the kindness of Mr. Kimball, superintendent of the mills, from which the school derives its name, serves, I fear, as a palliative, rather than as an effort to cure, though it contains an important feature, that of the half-time school, and is an evidence of the good intent of Mr. Kimball.

I have had no opportunity to visit the other schools at New Bedford and Indian Orchard.

But none of these schools meet the demands of the day. There must be a radical improvement in legislative enactments concerning this matter, before any creditable results can be reached. The manufacturers have a right to demand uniformity. The complaint has been, "the general disregard of the law," and although that cannot excuse any person for its infringement, they have a right to claim an impartial enforcement, such as the present laws do not provide.

In his second report, General Oliver says:—

"There is no power conferred whereby the party detailed to attempt its execution can determinately secure satisfactory evidence of its having been violated. No owner, agent, superintendent or overseer of any manufacturing or mechanical establishment, nor any parent or guardian, would be likely to criminate himself, if called on as testimony in any case that might be attempted under the statute, in which such party was concerned.

"No power to enter any such establishment, in order to learn of any overt act under the law, is conferred upon any party whatever. Were the person detailed to see to its execution to be refused admittance to the premises of any party suspected, he could not move a step forward.

"It provides for no forms of certificates,—and these should be uniform throughout the State,—nor for other necessary papers to be used in determining either the age of a child employed, or the school attendance of such child, or length of time of employment in mill or elsewhere. It provides for no methods or books of registration to be kept by employers, setting forth the age and birthplace of the several children employed, the dates at which they commenced work, the amount of annual schooling, etc., etc., all of which, and many more, are essential to a perfect working of an exact and practical statute. In all these matters the English law is far preferable to ours.

"It makes it 'the duty of the constable of the Commonwealth to detail ONE of his deputies' to see to compliance with the provision of the Act. In my former report, I have attempted to show that, under my experience, *one man* is wholly insufficient for the perfect fulfilment of duties involving the great and severely important matters contemplated under this statute, a statute intended to protect Massachusetts against the terrible evils which have become manifest under a system which is a shame and a curse to England,

and which will be more calamitous to us here, unless its further progress is resolutely and thoroughly arrested."

In addition to these objections, it may be said that the word "knowingly" was introduced into this law against the protest of its friends. The only excuse that can be offered for its introduction into statute law is, that there was no protection to the employers against the misrepresentation of parents as to age or previous schooling.

What is needed is, a complete Factory Act, similar to that so long in successful operation in England; an Act designating the minimum and maximum ages to be specially protected, the amount and kind of schooling, the hours of labor per day, etc., and this Act must specially designate the kinds of employment it shall cover; so that the several needs of the different employments may receive special and separate provisions.

It must not be understood that the manufacturers of textiles are alone guilty of wrong in this direction. Our cities are full of these little starvelings. It is estimated that over one hundred thousand children are at work in the various factories of New York City, including tobacco strippers 10,000, envelope makers 8,000, gold-leaf workers, burnishers, paper collar and paper box makers 8,000, twine makers, artificial flower makers 12,000. Many of these latter are children from five to seven years of age.

The author of the "Little Laborers of New York," Mr. C. L. Brace, in "Harper's Magazine," August, 1873, says:—

"What an immense population of children in this city are the little slaves of capital. How intense and wearying is their daily toil, and how much of their health and education is sacrificed in these early years and premature labor! The evil in New York is evidently enormous, and most threatening to our future. These children, stunted in body and mind, are growing up to be our voters and legislators. There are already over sixty thousand persons in New York who cannot read or write. These little overworked operatives will swell this ignorant throng. Fortunately this great abuse has not escaped the attention of humane men."

The number of children so employed in Boston is not known, yet there are doubtless thousands, and none more in

need of the care of the State than the cash boys and girls of our large retail stores.

THE ENGLISH FACTORY ACTS.

We cannot give a more brief or condensed statement of the causes that led to the passage of these Acts, than that contained in the article of Mr. Brace before alluded to.

“ In Great Britain, the evil of this great army of infant workers had increased to an alarming extent. Hundreds of thousands of little ones were found growing up without any education, except the petty practical experience of the small branch of factory labor in which they were engaged, without any full development of body, their little forms bent and rickety, their countenances pale, their growth stunted by premature labor, and arriving at manhood utterly unsuited either to be citizens or the heads of new families. Vast numbers of them also died under this youthful slavery, and the mines and factories were discovered to be an immense slaughterhouse for these unfortunate children.

“ At length a band of devoted reformers and philanthropists arose, who were determined that this burning shame of their country should be wiped out; who felt that the wealth and culture of England rested on a hideous foundation, when the labor of oppressed children built up the structure. They began an incessant agitation against the over-labor of factory children. They wrote for the press, printed documents, held public meetings, petitioned parliament, and sought in every way to rouse the public feeling and conscience. They had against them the indifference of the poor parents themselves, and an enormous factory interest which made rich profits out of the toil of these unhappy children of poverty. Everywhere the specious argument was brought forward, that the poor themselves, most of all, needed the labor: that the earnings of the children supported the families of the laborers, and if these were excluded from the factories, they would all come upon the unions or the public almshouses. It was claimed that it was better to support the children of the laborers even by their own overwork, than to keep them in poor-houses.

“ It was urged that it was an oppression on the parents who had brought these children into the world, not to allow them to use their earnings. The production of England would be diminished, it was said, and she would lose in the markets of the world, if this great source from children’s labor were dried up. Even the education of the factory was lauded, and it was claimed that the incessant labor

on one object was better for the child than the training it would get in the streets. To direct the manufacturer where to procure labor, and where not, was an interference with 'freedom of trade.' Capital and labor, even child's labor, should be left to natural laws.

"Against all these sophistical arguments, however, the humanity of England asserted itself. It saw it was the manifest duty of the state to guard the children of the poor and unfortunate against the greed of capital and the indifference of their own parents. It felt that these little beings are the wards of the public; that they ought not to be dwarfed in body and cramped in mind by the covetousness of others; that they had a claim on the protection of the fortunate. It was more and more seen, also, that it was not for the interest of England that a great multitude of human beings should grow up among the people, ignorant in mind, weakened in body and unfit for the duties of manhood. There were 'dangerous classes' enough in the English cities, whom no reformation or legislation could reach, without adding to them this immense mass of children, enslaved, as it were, in their early years. The interest of the state was evidently in education, even if production were diminished. A greater evil than poverty was wide-spread ignorance. It was clear, too, that this great class of children would produce all the more hereafter if their minds could be trained in childhood. The best condition for popular wealth is popular education. Moreover, it was not believed that the exclusion of the children from the factories would drive the families to the almshouse. There was no difficulty, evidently, in arranging for half-time schools and half-time work. The one would help the other. The young laborer would be the better for his school, and the young scholar for his toil.

"After incessant discussion and a long contest, the English 'Factory Bills' were carried through parliament, were repeatedly amended, improved, and enlarged, until they form now a ponderous blue-book. These Acts have been rigorously executed, and their effect has been that hundreds of thousands of little 'white slaves' have been redeemed from slavery, saved from premature toil and sickness, and that a new class of English laborers is growing up, better educated, healthier, happier, and of more value to their employers. The reform was one of the most glorious and beneficent ever carried out in Great Britain."

These Acts have been so often referred to in the public documents of the State for the past few years, it may be well to give somewhat of their general plan. Quoting from "The Factory Acts made easy, or how to Work the Law without

risk of Penalties," by Robert Baker, Esq., one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Factories, 144 pp. 16mo, the following is a very brief synopsis of some of the main features.

FACTORY ACTS.

Accidents.

If any accident happens in a factory to any person employed therein, so that that person cannot return to his or her work by nine o'clock of the following morning, the occupier, or if he is not at the mill, the principal manager, must, within the next twenty-four hours after the accident, send a notice, in writing, of the accident, to the certifying surgeon of the district.

The following is a form to send to the surgeon, which might usefully be employed in case of such accidents:—

SEPTEMBER 1, 187 .

To Mr. , *Certifying Surgeon,*

SIR:—An accident has happened this day [or yesterday] to , a person employed by us. She resides at , whither she has been removed. [or, after the word us, "She has been removed to ."]

I am, sir,

For

Mill,

Manager.

The surgeon, having received notice of an accident, is to proceed as soon as possible to the factory, and make an investigation into the nature and cause of the injury, and report upon it to the inspector.

Actions for damages may be brought in behalf of any person injured by machinery (including mill-gearing) in a factory.

The certifying surgeon has a full right of entry into any factory, and into any room in any building into which a person to whom an accident has happened may have been removed, for the purpose of making an investigation into the nature of the accident: and he may question any person alone, if he likes, about it, or may do any other act that an

inspector might do, such as the examination of the machinery by which, or the place where, the accident happened, so far as such an investigation may require it, but no further.

Alphabetical Index.

In all mills where more than twenty children or young persons are employed, an alphabetical index must be kept.

Certifying Surgeons.

A certifying surgeon must be a person registered to practise surgery or medicine, and he is to be appointed by an inspector, who is to make known the appointment to the mill occupiers of the district.

No surgeon occupying a factory, or having a beneficial interest in a factory, can be a certifying surgeon. The surgeon must register his visits to the factory, in the proper place in the register of workers, punctually, as in the following form :—

DATE OF VISITS.			Number of Persons presented for Examination.	Number of Certificates granted.	Signature of the Surgeon.
Months.	Days.	Years.			
June, .	12	1870	6	4	Edw. Wales.
June, .	19	1870	None.	None.	Edw. Wales.
June, .	26	1870	2	1	Edw. Wales.
July, .	2	1870	4	3	Edw. Wales.

Cleaning.

No shaft of any description, nor any drum, wheel, or pulley, by which the motion of the first moving power is communicated to any machine appertaining to any manufacturing process, must be cleaned by any child, female or young person, when the same is in motion.

The machines themselves may be cleaned when in motion; but no person, of the classes above mentioned, must be allowed to work between the fixed and traversing part of any self-acting machine while the latter is in motion.

Clock.

The time of beginning and ending work, and of meals, must be regulated by a clock, open to public view, which has been approved of in writing by the inspector or sub-inspector of the district.

A few minutes may be allowed before the engine or wheel starts, and after it ceases, for the hands to get in and out of the mill; but any work done by hand—such as weaving, slubbing, dusting the windows, cleaning, or oiling, or anything, in fact (unless by male persons above eighteen years of age), either voluntarily or by order, either before the moving power has commenced or after it has ceased, unless within the working hours, and exclusive of the meal hours,—is illegal, and may render the employer or his agent, as the case may be, liable to a penalty for wrong employment.

Employment.

A person is considered to be employed in a factory when doing any kind of work whatsoever within the outer gates or bounds of any factory, whether for or without wages, whether as a learner or otherwise—about or amongst any article made of cotton, wool, hair, silk, flax, jute, hemp, or tow, either separately or mixed. And even if a person is found in a factory where any of these articles are used as materials, though not working, except when all the machinery is standing, and no manufacturing process carried on, or when bringing food to the workers between four and five o'clock in the afternoon, such person is considered to be employed, unless evidence can be shown to the contrary.

Flax Mills.

Neither child, young person, nor woman, can be employed in a wet spinning-room, unless the workers are protected from being wetted; and where steam is used, unless where the steam is prevented from escaping.

Hours of Work.

Young persons and women cannot begin before six o'clock in the morning, nor work later than six o'clock in the evening.

(by the clock which has been approved and declared), on Mondays, Tuesdays, Wednesdays, Thursdays and Fridays, except from the first of October to the thirty-first of March, inclusive, when, on writing to say so to the inspector, stating for how long the alteration will be continued (such period being not less than a month), the hours of work may be altered, from seven in the morning till seven in the evening. But in no case is work allowed on Saturday after two o'clock, P. M.

Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors.

An inspector or sub-inspector may enter every part of a factory, either by night or by day, when any person is employed therein.

Either of them may, by day, enter any place which they may think to be a factory, or any school in which children employed in factories are educated; may take with them into any factory the surgeon, or any peace officer; may examine all documents; may annul the certificates of the surgeon; may give notice in writing of any dangerous machinery which they may observe in a factory; may summon any person to appear before the justices, either as principals or witnesses: they are protected in their office by the provisions of 24 Geo. III., c. 44, being extended to them. The inspector may appoint certifying surgeons, make rules for their guidance, and may also annul such appointments.

Lost Time.

When the number of hours lost is more than can be made up within the twenty-four of the same day, without working the hands more than ten hours and a half, then it may be made up at the rate of an hour a day within the next six months. But no lost time can be recovered on a Saturday afternoon.

Mill-gearing.

"Mill-gearing" comprehends every shaft, and every wheel, drum, or pulley, by which the motion of the first moving power is communicated to any machine appertaining to the manufacturing process.

"Machinery" comprehends all the various parts of the machines by which the processes of manufacture are carried on. (7 Vic., c. 15, S. 73.)

The gearing wheels of machinery constitutes its dangerous parts. They are first to be observed, and then to be described in a notice to be served on the occupier, by the inspector or sub-inspector; after which notice, if an accident happens by them to any person for want of fencing, the penalty may be a hundred pounds, together with costs, however slight the accident may be; and unless the fences are kept secure continuously, heavy penalties may continuously be inflicted.

Meal-Times.

The time allowed for meals is an hour and a half, between half past seven in the morning and six in the evening.

No person under eighteen years of age, and no woman, can be employed more than five hours before one o'clock at noon, without an interval of thirty minutes.

Neither child, young person, nor woman, being a worker, must be allowed to remain in any room in which any machinery is then at work, or manufacturing process being carried on, during any meal hours.

Notices.

The following notices are required to be hung up at the entrance of the factory, on movable boards, and elsewhere, where the inspector or sub-inspector may direct:—

Name and address of the Inspector of this district:	A. B. Factory office.	Home Office, London.
Name and address of sub-Inspector of this district:	A. B.	[Place.]
Name and address of the Surgeon who grants certificates for this factory:	A. B.	[Place.]
Clock by which the hours of work are regulated:	at	Clock,

The Time allowed for Meals in this Factory.

DAYS OF THE WEEK.	BREAKFAST.		DINNER.		TEA.	
	From	To	From	To	From	To
Monday,	8	8.30	12.30	1.30	-	-
Tuesday,	8	8.30	12.30	1.30	-	-
Wednesday,	8	8.30	12.30	1.30	-	-
Thursday,	8	8.30	12.30	1.30	-	-
Friday,	8	8.30	12.30	1.30	-	-
Saturday,	8.30	9	-	-	-	-

Date.

Manager [or Occupier].

An abstract of this Act is to be also hung up at the entrance of a factory, and elsewhere if required.

The subjoined notice is required to be either given or sent: "When any person begins to occupy a factory, a notice must be sent to the 'Office of the Factory Inspectors, London,' within the first month of occupancy, under a penalty of from two to five pounds."

Parents.

If a parent (who must be assumed to know the age of his own child) takes such child when under the required age to work, either at eight or thirteen, as the case may be, and on the strength of the parent's assertion the child is employed, or is employed full time when by right it should only have been employed half-time, such parent may be liable to a fine of twenty shillings.

But if, on the representation of the parent, the surgeon grants a certificate of thirteen, the parent knowing that the child is not thirteen, then the parent is liable to imprisonment for six months. The parent is the person to cause his child who is a half-timer to attend school; which, if he neglects to do, he may be fined twenty shillings for every neglect.

Registers.

The registers are never to be kept locked up, but are to be at all times accessible both to the surgeon and the inspec-

tors; and are to be produced, on demand, to an inspector or sub-inspector when the factory is at work.

The following is the form of registers and the mode of using them:—

For young persons between thirteen and eighteen years of age.

No. of reference to Age-Certificate Book, as required in Schedule A.	NAMES.		DATE OF FIRST DAY OF EMPLOYMENT OR RE- EMPLOYMENT.			Say "left" when left, and "18" when 18.
	Surname.	Christian Name.	Month.	Day.	Year.	
64	Jones,	Mary,	June	14	1866	Left.
65	Edwards,	George	June	16	1866	Eighteen.
66	Baxter,	Samuel,	June	18	1866	
XVI.	Lord,	Mary,	June	20	1866	
	Jackson,	Grace,	June	20	1866	
67	Johns,	Thomas,	July	1	1866	
	Bell,	Mary,	July	1	1866	
	Naylor,	Sarah,	July	1	1866	

Mary Lord is 16, and does not require a certificate, and "sixteen" is written where otherwise the number of her certificate would have been, and the last three are waiting for certificates till the surgeon comes.

Register of Children.

Names of the Children employed in this Factory before 12 o'clock, at noon, or the morning set.

No. of Reference to Age-Certificate Book, as required in Schedule A.	NAMES.		DATE OF FIRST DAY OF EMPLOYMENT OR RE- EMPLOYMENT.			When a Child ceases to be employed, say op- posite its name 'left,' or if transferred to the afternoon, set, 'changed,' or 'young person' when 18 yrs. of age.
	Surname.	Christian Name.	Month.	Day.	Year.	
605	Grace,	Edward,	June	12	1866	Left.
606	Smiles,	Sarah,	June	12	1866	Changed.
607	Baxter,	Samuel,	June	18	1866	Young Person.
608	Grace,	Edward,	June	20	1866	
	Teal,	Mary,	June	24	1866	
	Worth,	Sarah,	June	24	1866	

We thus see that "Sarah Smiles," having changed, is transferred from the morning to the afternoon set; and that Samuel Baxter is also transferred to the register of young persons.

Saturday.

No child, young person, or woman, can be employed in any factory later than two o'clock in the afternoon, on any pretence whatever.

School.

Every child employed in a factory must attend school; and the person who receives any direct benefit from the wages of such child, is to take care it does attend. When children are working half-days, the schooling is to begin the day after a child has commenced work; but when they are working on alternate days, schooling must begin the day before work.

There is no necessity for schooling on Saturdays. No school hours can be reckoned which are taken before eight o'clock in the morning, or after six o'clock in the evening.

The children must have three hours' schooling every Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday, all the year round, when they are at school in the morning. The afternoon set must also have three hours' schooling, except between the first of November and the last day of February, when two hours and a half's attendance is all that is required in the afternoon.

When children work ten hours on alternate days, then the school attendance must be for five hours every other day, except Saturday, taking care that the school day precedes the working day.

When the school is on the factory premises, and the factory ceases to work the whole day, the schooling need not be carried on on that day.

The attendance is to be regular—sickness and other unavoidable causes, and holidays allowed by the Act, excepted.

To show the regularity of this attendance, the occupier is to obtain from the school-master, on Monday in every week, a certificate in the subjoined form, which he is to keep for six months, and produce to an inspector or sub-inspector on demand. Hence the necessity of having it always on the premises from Monday to Friday:—

Form of Certificate.

I hereby certify that the under-mentioned children employed in the factory of , situated in , have attended the school kept by me at , for the number of hours, and at the time on each day, specified in the column opposite to their names, during the week ending on Saturday, the day of , one thousand eight hundred and , and that the causes of absence stated are true, to the best of my belief.

NAME OF CHILD.	MONDAY.		TUESDAY.		WED'SDAY.*		THURSDAY.		FRIDAY.		Cause of Absence.	
	Time.		Time.		Time.		Time.		Time.			
	From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To		
Jane Lee, .	9	12	9	12	—	—	9	12	9	12		
Ruth Wood, .	9	12	a	a	—	—	9	12	9	12	Sick, and not at mill.	
Jane West, .	1½	4½	1½	4½	—	—	1½	4½	1½	4½		
Ann Wild, .	1½	4½	a	—	—	—	9	12	—	—	Kept at home by mother.	

* Holiday.

(Signed), School-master [or School-mistress.]
The day of 18 .

Thus, the precise time that the children attended is entered, and the morning set and the afternoon set are each kept entered in their proper place. The names of the children may be written in the certificate, by anybody; but the time they attended school, and the signature of the school master, must be in his own hand-writing. The letter "a" shows that "Ruth Wood" was absent on Tuesday; but was sick at home and not at mill at all, and therefore the excuse was reasonable. On the contrary, "Ann Wild," who was "kept at home by her mother," was made to attend the whole day on Thursday, for that neglect.

School certificates may be given in the above form in loose sheets; but if so, they must afterwards be pasted in a book, to be called the "School-Certificate Book."

The case of "Ann Wild," wherein she makes up her lost school time of Tuesday on Thursday, is not a legal requirement, but a suggested arrangement, whereby the child's loss of wages is saved.

Legally, she could not have been employed during the following week for want of that one day's attendance; but having made it up, she may by consent.

Children often stay away from school, or are kept away, from the most unreasonable causes; such as "running errands," "sick"—although at work—"nursing," and a variety of other excuses; but as the law provides that if a child works any time at all during a week, it must go to school every day of that week, whether it is employed every day or not, unless it leaves the mill altogether during that week, it is clear that an absentee could not have the necessary certificate of attendance on the Monday morning of the following week, and therefore could not be employed. In order, therefore, to check these abuses, and thus to keep the children at work, they should be required to make up these absences. And this mode of curing absenteeism has been productive of the best results, and only requires a little coöperation between the overlooker of the mill, and the master or mistress of the school,—the one, to send a note of absence, on the evening of the absence, and the other to act upon it,—to make the school attendance regular, and it is a far more merciful proceeding than the infliction of fines.

The school book, made up in the form required by law, should be sent to the school every Friday afternoon, for the attendances to be marked therein, and should be returned from the school to the mill every Monday morning, in order that the clerk or overlooker may see whether every child has duly attended school on every day, or on every alternate day, the full number of hours during the week preceding, without which it cannot be legally employed.

The school certificates of a school master or mistress may be annulled by an inspector, by a notice in writing to the occupier, in which notice the reasons of annulment must be stated; these are,—

For incapacity to teach reading and writing.

For immoral conduct.

For being grossly ignorant.

For a want of books and materials to teach reading and writing; and

For continued neglect to fill up and sign the school certificates.

Surgical Certificates.

Surgical certificates are required for all persons working in factories, from eight to sixteen years of age.

Certificate of Age.

The forms of certificate of age for children, and which are to be printed or written upon white paper, are as follows—

Firstly. Where the surgeon acts on his own opinion :

Factory Act.—Vic. 7, c. 15.

No.

Certificate of age for a child to be employed in the factory of , situate at , in the parish of .
I, , of , duly appointed a certifying surgeon, do hereby certify, That , son of and , residing in , has been personally examined by me this day of , one thousand eight hundred and , and that said child has the ordinary strength and appearance of a child at least eight years of age; and that I believe that the real age of the said child to be at least eight years; and that said child is not incapacitated by disease or bodily infirmity from working daily in said factory for the time allowed by this act.

(Signed,) , Certifying Surgeon.

Factories Regulation Act.—Vic. 7, c. 15.

No.

Certificate of age for a young person to be employed in the factory of , situate at , in the parish of .

I, , of , duly appointed a certifying surgeon, do hereby certify, That , son of and , residing in , has been personally examined by me this day of , one thousand eight hundred and ; and that the said young person has the ordinary strength and appearance of at least thirteen years of age, and that I believe the real age of said young person to be at least thirteen years; and that the said young person is not incapacitated by disease or bodily infirmity from working daily in the above-named factory for the time allowed by this act.

(Signed,) , Certifying Surgeon.

A surgeon may refuse to give a certificate of age. If he does, he may be required to give a certificate in writing for so doing.

Workers.

Children, young persons, and women, are the persons of whom the law takes cognizance as regards work. Children are all persons between the ages of eight and thirteen years; but in the winding and throwing of raw silk, children become young persons at eleven years of age.

Young persons are all persons between the ages of thirteen and eighteen years.

Women of every age are treated the same as young persons. Lads of eighteen years of age are called men, and are therefore exempt from the provisions respecting "employment."

A child under eight years of age must not be allowed to work at all.

The surgeon is not bound to ask a child's age. He is to give a certificate of its having the ordinary strength and appearance of eight, and that he believes the real age to be eight, and that it is not incapacitated by disease or bodily infirmity from working seven hours. But if he is unable to satisfy himself on these points, he is bound to refuse the certificate, and the child must be sent home at once. If, however, the certificate is refused only for apparent want of real age, and if the parent knows that the child is really eight, and wishes to prove it, he may demand from the inspector or sub-inspector a requisition (*gratis*), on giving him the name of the child, and of both his parents, and the place where and the year in which he was born. The parent must then take the requisition to the person who has the care of the register of births where the child was born, and tender him a shilling when asking for the register. From him he will receive the register of real age, which must be taken to the surgeon, who will then, if the child is really eight years of age, give the required certificate.

When not making up lost time, a child may begin work in the morning at six, and continue working till one o'clock at noon, with an interval of thirty minutes for breakfast; or it

may begin work at the usual afternoon time, and go on till six o'clock in the evening, on every day but Saturday. On Saturday, it cannot work later than two o'clock, on any pretence whatever.

Thus, the ordinary hours of work of any day but Saturday can only be between six in the morning and six in the evening, or, from October to April, between seven in the morning and seven at night.

If the usual dinner-hour of the young persons is twelve o'clock, and not one, the morning set of children cannot stay to carry on any manufacturing process after the young persons have gone away, because no child can remain during any meal-time in any room in which any manufacturing process is then going on. They cannot even clean the machinery during any part of the time noticed as meal hours.

No child can be employed unless it attends some school for three hours a day for all the year round, if in the morning, and also, if in the afternoon, except from the first of November to the twenty-eighth of February, during which four months two hours and a half attendance will do, but for the afternoon set only.

When the child is employed only half a day, the schooling may follow the employment; but when it works alternate days, it must precede it.

A child must attend school from the date of its first employment, whether it is only a learner or not; and so long as it works but five minutes in a week, it must go to school every half-day or every alternate day, as the case may be, reasonable excuses being allowed. It is a common supposition that if there is no work for a child on any day, that it is not bound to attend school on that day; but this is not so. So long as a child is considered a worker, its school attendance must be as regular as that of any other factory children at the same school.

Reasonable excuses are, sickness, and death of a near relative, or very wet days, when the school is far distant in country districts, and the ordinary holidays of the school. But staying at home to nurse or run errands, or any other such employment, renders their factory employment illegal.

Children working alternate days must attend school alternate days (except on Saturday) for five hours, between eight

o'clock in the morning and six o'clock in the evening, all the year round.

A child may be employed every alternate day, except Saturday, for ten hours, when the labor of the young persons is limited to ten hours also; but not when the women and young persons work ten hours and a half. But a child cannot be employed ten hours for two days in succession, and schooled two days in succession; nor even for ten hours a day on alternate days, until the master of the factory has sent a notice to the inspector, of his intention to work his young persons and children only ten hours, which notice must be repeated whenever ten hours a day, work having been discontinued, is about to be resumed.

A child must not be allowed to clean any part of the mill-gearing, when in motion for the purpose of propelling any part of the manufacturing machinery.

A child must not work between the fixed and traversing part of a self-acting machine while in motion by any mechanical power.

When the certifying surgeon is not employed to grant certificates, a child cannot be allowed to work without a certificate of age; but when the certificates are granted by the certifying surgeon, a child may be allowed to be employed seven days without a certificate, if the mill is within three miles of the surgeon's residence, and thirteen days if beyond three miles. The name of every child must be entered in the register of children as soon as it is employed.

The principal feature of the law to which I would call special attention, is that relating to half-time schools. From all sources comes the testimony that they are in every way a success. Here in Massachusetts we have the same class of operatives, the same conditions of life, and a stronger necessity for the adoption of the same system.

The Half-Time Factory Schools of England.

Mr. Richard Hinchcliffe, an overseer in a woollen mill, after an absence of twenty-eight years from England, returned during the past summer, and in answer to a request for his testimony upon this subject, writes as follows:—

“ During a stay of two months in England the past summer I interested myself much in gathering facts in relation to the half-time system of schooling of English factory operatives. I visited factories in Leeds, Bradford, Rudsey, Farnley, Rochdale, and other important manufacturing centres; conversed with factory owners and operatives; all agreed as to the beneficial effects of the system. In a number of the factories I was permitted to call to the overseer’s desk any child I saw at work, and I tested the extent of their knowledge of grammar, arithmetic and geography. I found that they would compare favorably with those who had had the opportunity of attending full time. Boys and girls, not over twelve years of age, were capable of properly working out difficult problems in common and decimal fractions; many could write a fair hand, and in a few cases the penmanship was very creditable.

“ Samuel Wray, of Armley, a half-timer, about twelve years old, gave me a beautiful specimen of his penmanship; he has since been employed as a clerk in the Leeds Wholesale Coöperative Store.

“ Robert Burnett, a school-teacher of Leeds, informed me that, as far as his experience went, he was convinced that the half-time scholars were but little, if any, behind those who had attended full time. James Corville, of Manchester, also a school-teacher, gave me similar testimony.

“ The parents of factory children were generally satisfied with the half-time system, as it afforded an opportunity for gaining quite a respectable amount of education by the time they reached the age when they would be allowed by law to work full time.

“ The half-time factory workers receive much larger wages than were paid to those of the same age who worked full time a quarter of a century ago, so that the half-time system has actually enlarged the *average* aggregate earnings of the factory operative’s family.

“ I am of opinion that the system is far preferable to the system of educating factory operatives in Massachusetts. Here they go three months to school, and afterwards work nine months in the factory, during which time they forget nearly all they have learned in school.”

Protection of Children in Foreign Countries.

In France, many of the merchants and manufacturers of Mulhausen, the proprietors of very considerable establishments thereof, petitioned for the enactment of a law, limiting the age and hours of labor of children. As long ago as 1840, a law was reported by the Baron Charles Dupin, and

observed favorably by the Duke de Praslin, the Count Chollet, M. Cousin, then the Minister of Public Instruction, the Marquis Laplace, M. Villemain and Baron de Gerando.

The limit of age was fixed at eight years, and the hours of labor for persons between eight and twelve, at eight hours per day. The greatest objection was to compulsory education. Upon this subject Baron de Gerando said :—

“ Ought the law which is intended to afford protection to the children of the working classes to be confined to the protection of the bodily health, or should it be extended to the moral health also? Ought it to be a safeguard only to the physical powers of the child, without regard to the more noble moral and intellectual powers? Ought we to confine ourselves to the care of preparing a generation which will supply able soldiers to the government, or ought we not also to keep in view the importance of preparing good and virtuous citizens for the state, and estimable men for society? These were the questions which we proposed for our consideration; and I now state, openly and frankly, that the ruling sentiment in the committee was, that our object should be to improve not only the physical condition, but also, and more especially, the moral condition of the children of the working classes.

“ There are many things to be done to improve the moral condition of the working classes; but the first in point of order, that which will be most powerfully efficacious, unquestionably, is the improvement of education in that class of society.

“ But we are told that we wish to introduce the principle of compulsory education into the law. Now, I will declare in the name of the committee, that the idea of compulsion never once entered into our minds.

“ I will not discuss the general principle. The distinguished individual who is at the head of the Ministry of Public Instruction entertains the same opinion with myself, at least I hope he does, that it is a salutary principle. It exists in the United States and in Switzerland, and I never heard any complaint of despotic rule, because parents are obliged to send their children to the primary schools. I could say much in favor of that principle. I could show that Article CCCLXXXV. of the Civil Code imposes upon fathers of families the very obligation that we are now contending for, inasmuch as they are required to give their children the benefit of education. Again, it is said that we are introducing into the law a principle of inequality. Our opponents are so sincere men, their objections proceed from such a right motive, that I do not at all fear

to meet them on this point. There is no inequality in the law we propose; it is no more than a provision for a special object; it is not a general principle that we wish to establish, but we wish to provide for a special case; and with your leave *I will point out the principal reasons why children employed in factories form an exception, to meet which, separate provision must be made.*

“ It is right to leave things to their natural course so long as there is no obstacle to impede it. We should never think of sending an engineer to examine the course of a river, unless something was obstructing its free passage. Now, what is the obstruction in this case? Why, that their working prevents the children from receiving instruction, and is an excuse to those who will not give them any. Parents send their children to the factories to derive profit from them; they find it more convenient to receive wages for their labor than to pay for their schooling; and thus the parent and manufacturer have a common interest. This is an obstruction that we wish to remove.

“ There is another class of special circumstances which I wish to explain to you, and I shall have need of all your indulgence in order that I may be rightly understood. Human labor is composed of two elements—material power and intellectual power. Now, what is, and what always must be, the tendency of human industry? Is it not this,—to endeavor to diminish the amount of the first element, the mechanical man, and exercise that of the second, the intellectual man? Assuming that principle to be admitted, what should be the effect of the invention and multiplication of machinery? Should it not evidently be to substitute a mechanical moving power for a human power? Consequently, to take away from a great number of individuals the necessity of using so much of their muscular powers, but conferring upon them, instead, the opportunity of a proportionate increase of intelligence.

But see what takes place in consequence of the progress of that manufacturing skill about which we boast so much. To what does that extreme division of labor tend? Is it not that an individual, even of mature age, is occupied incessantly in the same operation, in the same motions? You have read in Adam Smith how many work-people are required to make a pin. How does it happen that the making of a pin should require so many hands? Because the same individual performs the same single operation every day of his life, from year's end to year's end, and is thereby condemned to a mechanical and monotonous existence. It is against that tendency that we wish to interpose some obstacle.

“ In proportion as the discoveries in arts multiply, and as we make progress in improvement, in like proportion ought the moral

and intellectual condition of the species to rise. *The progress of civilization does not depend alone on the increase of wealth; it chiefly depends upon the improved moral and intellectual condition of the population.* All this has been often said, and much better said than I can pretend to do; but with your permission, I will offer some observations which, perhaps, may not yet have been made.

"It is important to draw a distinction between an apprenticed child and an operative child, and I beg you to attend to the distinction I make. The apprentice is in a course of instruction; I do not say that he is taught all he has occasion to know, but nevertheless his faculties are exercised in a variety of ways; he learns the elements of a process, and by and by he becomes more skilful: in short, he learns a trade. With the operative child it is very different. I will take a very simple instance, from the very subject upon which we are now engaged: A child that has passed ten years of his life as a pieceer in a spinning-mill will have learned nothing; he will only have acquired the power of doing that which might be performed by a brute, for a tolerably docile ape might be taught to do as much.

"We desire, therefore, that the operative child, condemned to labor at a description of work that is calculated to reduce him to the condition of a brute, may have some compensation by receiving some moral and religious training.

"So far from our proposal being an act of tyranny, we dare to say that no provision in the law is more humane, or more advantageous either to the master or his work-people. We could read to you the very interesting testimony which we have received from one of the partners in one of the largest manufacturing establishments of France, one in which they employ from seventeen hundred to eighteen hundred people. He stated that, for the last twenty years, he and his partner had turned their attention to the moral condition of their work-people, and that they had gradually succeeded in raising it; and that in the same progression the produce of their industry improved in quality and quantity. And, in truth, gentlemen, there is no greater auxiliary to labor than sound morals. Those are the best workmen who have upright and honest sentiments. Improve the moral condition of the working classes, and you will improve their worldly condition."

But it was not until after the war with Germany, that France awoke to the importance of educating her citizens, and Jules Simon, Minister of Public Instruction, introduced a bill, of which the following is a synopsis; having pre-

viously expressed his opinion upon the subject in a letter to one of the *maires* of Paris, in which he says:—

“ France can only be saved, the republic can only be firmly established, if, through unceasing exertions, we succeed in restoring the moral and intellectual grandeur of our country. That will be our work, our joy, the aim of our whole life, when this fearful and sanguinary tragedy will have passed away. We shall create a generation inaccessible to fear, enlightened with regard to public and private duties, freed from the old prejudices which enervate character and obscure reason,—a generation which, by its enlightened character, its patriotism, its virtue, has become worthy to put an end to the two great plagues of humanity—privilege and war!”

Bill of Jules Simon.

“ 1. Every child, male or female, between the ages of six and thirteen, must receive a minimum of education, either in the public or private schools. This minimum of education is to embrace the obligatory branches of instruction; and its existence is, at the end of the period of schooling, to be certified by the ministry of public instruction through its subordinates in the departments. 2. A school committee, consisting of delegates from the canton, the *maire*, the clergyman, and three heads of families appointed by the municipal council, has to watch over attendance at school. 3. The government inspector in each district has a seat and vote in this committee. 4. If a child misses school three times during a month, without excuse, the father or guardian is summoned before the school committee, and is warned. If the case recurs, his name is placarded at the *maire*’s office, and his family is deprived of all aid from the public funds. If this does not induce him to send his child to school, a fine not exceeding one hundred francs is imposed; and finally, he can be deprived of his rights as a citizen for a period of three years. 5. The school committee issues certificates to children thirteen years of age, after having passed a public examination to which all must submit, whether educated in public or private schools. If, at this examination, it becomes evident that a child, who was supposed to receive private instruction, has in reality not received instruction in the obligatory branches, legal proceedings are instituted against the father or guardian. 6. From the 1st of January, 1880, no citizen twenty-one years of age will be registered as an elector who does not possess the above-mentioned certificate

from his local school committee, or give sufficient proof of being able to read or write. Articles 7 and 8 refer to the appointment of teachers, which is to be preliminary by the inspector of the academy, but definitely only after having passed an examination. The inspector of the academy is also intrusted with the inspection of elementary schools."

In Switzerland, laws are provided and enforced to compel all children between the ages of six and fourteen to attend school. School teachers are furnished with the names of all the children in the districts, the roll is called every morning, and the absentees noted. In Italy, a system has been adopted that is calculated to reach every class and condition of children. Portugal, Russia and Austria are remodelling their school systems; even the Ottoman Empire has established a compulsory education. The justices of the peace of the wards and villages are compelled to keep a register of the names of all the children who have reached the required age, as well as the names of the parents or guardians.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

It is the undoubted right and duty of the Commonwealth, through her law-making power, to educate all of the children within her borders, without regard to race, nationality or condition. The refusal or neglect to do this, while at the same time she denies the franchise to those unable to read or write, is an unwise and an injustice unworthy of her past record, and dangerous to her future welfare. Dr. Chalmers said: "It is, without question, both the duty and the right of the civil power to educate the people, such right and such duty resting on two distinct principles, one economic and the other judicial. Education adds directly to the economic value of men, helping them under all circumstances; helping them specially, when art brings forward new and better machinery, and science new and better methods, to accommodate themselves thereunto, and so increasing enormously the productive efficiency of their labor.

"That large portion of the people who are educated, and are also living by their own exertions of brain or hand, contributes with generous certainty to the wealth of the country, while a very large portion of those who are uneducated, not only contributes nothing thereto, but is a positive burden

upon the community. Upon the fact that, by education, you can diminish the numbers that make up this last set, rests the economic principle. The judicial principle rests on the fact that the laws of a country are *written* laws; written for the guidance of the people; and to be guided by them, the people must be able to read them."

Upon the faithful performance of this duty the future welfare of the State depends.

"It is obvious," says Horace Mann, "that children of ten, twelve, or fourteen years of age, may be steadily worked in our manufactories without any schooling, and that this cruel deprivation may be persevered in for years, and yet, during all this period, no very alarming outbreak shall occur to arouse the public mind from its guilty slumber. The children are in their years of minority, and they have no control over their own time or their own actions. The bell is to them what the water-wheel and the main shaft are to the machinery which they superintend. The wheel revolves, and the machinery must go; the bell rings, and the children must assemble. In their hours of work, they are under the police of the establishment; at other times, they are under the police of the neighborhood. Hence this state of things may continue for years, and the peace of the neighborhood remain undisturbed, except, perhaps, by a few nocturnal or Sabbath-day depredations. The ordinary movements of society may go on without any shocks or collisions,—as, in the human system, a disease may work at the vitals, and gain a fatal ascendancy there, before it manifests itself on the surface. But the punishment for such an offence will not be remitted because its infliction is postponed. The retribution, indeed, is not postponed, it only awaits the full completion of the offence; for this is a crime of such magnitude, that it requires years for the criminal to perpetrate it in and to finish it off thoroughly in all its parts. But when the children pass from the condition of restraint to that of freedom,—from years of enforced but impatient servitude, to that independence for which they have secretly pined and to which they have looked forward, not merely as the period of emancipation, but of long-delayed indulgence,—when they become strong in the passions and propensities that grow up spontaneously, but are

weak in the moral powers that control them, and blind in the intellect which foresees their tendencies; when, according to the course of our political institutions, they go, by one bound, from the political nothingness of a child to the political sovereignty of a man,—then, for that people who so cruelly neglected and injured them, there will assuredly come a day of retribution."

To avert that day, I plead for the little ones. For years the voices of warning and entreaty have been raised. Every report from Europe and from our sister States, and every committee, commission, bureau, or other official department before whom this question has been brought, has urged in the strongest language the need of protective and effective legislation.

With the experience of the failure of past appeals, I enter here, even if for the last time, my solemn protest against the narrow policy that looks only to the material gain of the day, and leaves the future to the fate that comes from the neglect of the poor and helpless. Can nothing but calamity arouse us? Must "Granite Mills" burn down, and bury in their ruins the smouldering dust of mother and child, before the law will give to them the power of self-protection? Must children plead in vain? Shall we, with all the terrible warnings of the past, forget our duty? Shall Christian people shrink from Christians' duty, and infants' tears be shed in vain? Robbed of the innocent sports of childhood, weighed down with care, grown prematurely old,—

"Ah! well may the children weep before you!
They are weary ere they run!
They have never seen the sunshine, nor the glory
Which is brighter than the sun.
They know the grief of man, without his wisdom,
They sink in man's despair, without its calm;
Are slaves, without the liberty in Christdom;
Are martyrs, by the pang without the palm;
Are worn, as if with age, yet untrievingly
The harvest of its memories cannot reap;
Are orphans of the earthly love and heavenly:—
Let them weep! let them weep!"

In these days of legislative interference, when the shield of the State protects the dumb beast from the merciless blows of his driver; when the overworked horse is remembered and released from his work; when capital expends the time of legislatures, taxes the people for any scheme that promises dividends to the stockholders; when monopolies have charters granted them,—then it would seem pitiable if childhood's want of leisure for rest of body and education for zest of mind should be denied them. Massachusetts is behind England, France and Germany, in legislation and in humanity upon this question. She goes on regardless of consequences; forgetful of the inevitable logic of events; protecting the strong, forgetting the weak and the poor,—and all under the false plea of non-interference with the liberties of the people. The children *have rights* that the State is bound to respect. Their right is to play and make merry; to be at school; to be *players*, not *workers*.

The argument that it would increase pauperism by forcing the parents to accept charity as a recompense for the loss of the child's earnings, comes mostly from those who have persistently sought protection through tariff laws. Why not have left our infant enterprises, our manufacturing interests, to the operation of natural laws?

But the argument has met its answer in the experience of England. It is the old objection, raised to blind thoughtless men. It has been the stale argument against all progress, and comes mostly from those who are earnest in the protection of their own selfish interests.

But even admitting that the wages of the factory operatives are so small that they would suffer for the necessities of life, if the earnings of the little ones were deducted from their income, would it not be better to pauperize the half-pauperized operative of to-day, rather than to multiply indefinitely the pauper class of the future? A hundred thousand children growing up in ignorance are not only a hundred thousand paupers in embryo, but they are in turn to be the parents of paupers.

But the prophesied evil of pauperism through the education of children, has no probability of fulfilment. Children are employed because they are cheap, and children's wages, like

those of adults, are governed by natural laws, though sometimes, and for a period, by artificial ones.

When the half-time system shall have been established, and the minimum age at which children can be employed is placed at twelve years, then wages will have taken care of themselves. Now the boy of eighteen bids against the father of thirty, and the girl of sixteen against the mother of twenty-five. The child of fourteen is now made to do the work of the youth of eighteen, and at less price. The demand for cheaper labor continues until the infant of eight is performing the labor of the child of twelve. This has been the regular and undeviating course for the past few years. Under proper factory legislation, this *death-struggle* for an existence, *called competition*, will have been righteously interfered with, and the natural laws of God and humanity, instead of the unnatural laws of man and inhumanity, will rule. Wages will increase, and the half-timers of 1884 will be the peers in physical beauty, mental capacity and moral life of those happy ones of this year who, at fourteen, are at school and at play, making our hearts lighter and hopes brighter with their presence. The old adage, "all work and no play," has proved itself no less true than its counterpart, "all play and no work." But the benefits that will follow this blessing of the little ones, will accrue not only to them, but to all. The toil-worn father, robbed in his youth of his birthright, education, will find himself refreshed and *his home made holier* through the improved discipline, the awakened culture, and the higher tone that comes from the school-room. The factory, with its noise and rude jests, its discipline that of despotism, its culture and its tone, who shall describe it? The influence of the Sabbath-school is believed to accomplish much, not only for those who attend its sessions, but for the parents of those who come under its Sabbath-day charge. The day-school with its ten sessions each week, ought and can be made to exert the most humanizing power of any instrumentality under government. But to reach the highest possibilities, to receive the fullest results, radical changes ought to be effected, both in the location and construction of school-houses upon the basis of health, accommodation and beauty, and the arrangement of studies not upon the idea that

every pupil is to be a college graduate, but that the majority are to receive all they can hope to have of school education by the time they are fifteen years of age. School-houses, pleasantly located in little parks of one or two acres,* with play-grounds and fruits and flowers, school-rooms well ventilated and well *warmed*, not *heated*, the non-attendance for ordinary causes will be diminished, and the discipline of the school greatly enhanced.

The first thing that is needed, is regularity of attendance; and, after that, the other great needs will come in their order. Can any one doubt that material prosperity will follow? Massachusetts is wealthy, not because of ignorant or cheap labor, but because of the *Common Schools*. *Common Schools* are an increase of wages; an increase of wages is a better distribution of wealth.

It has been said that ignorance and poverty are twin monsters, and that education is a means of removing poverty. In his last report, Horace Mann dwells at length upon this subject, in a manner masterly in its logic, as well as matchless in its beauty of diction. No language of mine can portray so forcibly the wonderful power of education over material things, or give such warnings of the danger of neglect. The unrest of the laboring classes is beginning to awaken some thinking minds, and the question that is repeatedly asked, is, "What shall we do with them?" The question for statesmen to ask is not what shall be done with the laborer of to-day, so much as what shall the laborer of to-morrow be?

What kind of a constituency shall elect the president in 1900? or in the words of Horace Mann, "To what extent can competence displace pauperism? How nearly can we free our-

* "Observe the location of city school-houses, four or five stories high, crowded into narrow streets, where neither sunlight nor pure air can reach them. At recess, when the pupils are allowed a few moments to escape the confined atmosphere of the building, they are sent out into "pens," inclosed by high walls, and paved with brick. Sir, I will venture the opinion that from two to five years would be added to the average life of the native population of cities, and the mortality among school children be largely reduced, if public educational structures were required to be built not more than two stories high, and each located upon a two or three-acre park. And then, if fewer hours of study and more hours of out-door physical exercise were required, a more handsome, vigorous, healthy and intelligent race of men and women would surely follow."—*From Speech of Hon. Joseph S. Potter, Mass. Senate, 1873.*

selves from the low-minded and the vicious ; not by their expatriation, but by their elevation ? To what extent can the resources and the powers of nature be converted into human welfare, the peaceful arts of life be advanced, and the vast treasures of human talent and genius be developed ? How much of suffering, in all its forms, can be relieved ; or, what is better than relief, how much can be prevented ? Cannot the classes of crimes be lessened, and the number of criminals in each class be diminished ? ”

It is the blindest folly to contemplate men only as producers, to estimate only their productive capacity with that of perfected machinery ; but even if we were to narrow our vision to this microscopic view of the real issue, we should see, upon scientific investigation, that education is the essential element of success in the accumulation of material prosperity. “ It is a remarkable fact that human progress, even in regard to the worldly interests of the race, did not begin with those improvements which are most closely allied to material prosperity. One would have supposed, beforehand, that improvements would commence with the near, rather than with the remote. Yet mankind had made great advances in astronomy, in geometry, and other mathematical sciences : in the writing of history, in oratory, and in poetry ; it is supposed by many to have reached the highest point of yet attained perfection in painting and in sculpture, and in those kinds of architecture which may be called regal or religious, centuries before the great mechanical discoveries and inventions which now bless the world were brought to light. And the question has often forced itself upon reflecting minds, why was this preposterousness, this inversion of what would appear to be the natural order of progress ? Why was it, for instance, that men should have learned the course of the stars and the revolutions of the planets, before they found out how to make a good wagon-wheel ? Why was it that they built the Parthenon and the Colosseum before they knew how to construct a comfortable, healthy dwelling-house ? Why did they construct the Roman aqueducts before they constructed a saw-mill ? Or, why did they achieve the noblest models in eloquence, in poetry, and in the drama, before they invented movable types ? I think we have now

arrived at a point where we can unriddle this enigma. *The labor of the world has been performed by ignorant men.*

"As soon as some degree of intelligence dawned upon the workman, then a corresponding degree of improvement in his work followed. At first, this intelligence was confined to a very small number, and, therefore, improvements were few, and they followed each other only after long intervals. They uniformly began in the nations, and among the classes where there was most intelligence. The middle classes of England and the people of Holland and Scotland have done a hundred times more than all the eastern hemisphere besides. What single improvement in art, or discovery in science, has ever originated in Spain, or throughout the vast empire of the Russias? But just in proportion as intelligence—that is, education—has quickened and stimulated a greater and a greater number of minds, just in the same proportion have inventions and discoveries increased in their wonderfulness, and in the rapidity of their succession. The progression has been rather geometrical than arithmetical. By the laws of nature, it must be so. If among ten well-educated children the chance is, that, at least, one of them will originate some new and useful process in the arts, or will discover some new scientific principle, or some new application of one, then among a hundred such well-educated children there is a moral certainty that there will be more than ten such originators or discoverers of new utilities; for the action of the mind is like the action of fire—one billet of wood will hardly burn alone, though dry as suns and north-west winds can make it, and though placed in the range of a current of air; ten such billets will burn well together; but a hundred will create a heat fifty times as great as ten; will make a current of air to fan their own flame, and consume even greenness itself.

"For the creation of wealth, then,—for the existence of a wealthy people and a wealthy nation,—intelligence is the grand condition. The number of improvers will increase, as the intellectual constituency, if I may so call it, increases. In former times, and in most parts of the world, even at the present day, not one man in a million has ever had such a development of mind as made it possible for him to become a contributor to art or science. Let this development pro-

ceed, and contributions numberless, and of inestimable value, will be sure to follow. That political economy, therefore, which busies itself about capital and labor, supply and demand, interest and rents, favorable and unfavorable balances of trade, but leaves out of account the element of a widespread mental development, is naught but stupendous folly."

The education of children, then, is the wisest means to secure material prosperity. Here in Massachusetts the danger is imminent, for here the population is more dense than the average of all our other States taken together, and density of population has always been the proximate cause of social inequality.

"If this be so, are we not in danger of naturalizing and domesticating among ourselves those hideous evils which are always engendered between capital and labor, when all the capital is in the hands of one class and all the labor is thrown upon another?

"Now, surely, nothing but universal education can counter-work this tendency to the domination of capital and the servility of labor. If one class possesses all the wealth and the education, while the residue of society is ignorant and poor, it matters not by what name the relation between them may be called; the latter, in fact and in truth, will be the servile dependants and subjects of the former. But if education be equably diffused, it will draw property after it by the strongest of all attractions; for such a thing never did happen, and never can happen, as that an intelligent and practical body of men should be permanently poor. Property and labor, in different classes, are essentially antagonistic; but property and labor, in the same class, are essentially fraternal. The people of Massachusetts have, in some degree, appreciated the truth, that the unexampled prosperity of the State—its comfort, its competence, its general intelligence and virtue—is attributable to the education, more or less perfect, which all its people have received; but are they sensible of a fact equally important; namely, that it is to this same education that two-thirds of the people are indebted for not being, to-day, the vassals of as severe a tyranny, in the form of capital, as the lower classes of Europe are bound to in the form of brute force?

" Education, then, beyond all other devices of human origin, is the great equalizer of the conditions of men—the balance-wheel of the social machinery. I do not here mean that it so elevates the moral nature as to make men disdain and abhor the oppression of their fellow-men. This idea pertains to another of its attributes. But I mean that it gives each man the independence and the means by which he can resist the selfishness of other men. It does better than to disarm the poor of their hostility towards the rich ; it prevents being poor. Agrarianism is the revenge of poverty against wealth. The wanton destruction of the property of others—the burning of hay-ricks and corn-ricks, the demolition of machinery, because it supersedes hand-labor, the sprinkling of vitriol on rich dresses—is only agrarianism run mad. Education prevents both the revenge and the madness. On the other hand, a fellow-feeling for one's class or caste is the common instinct of hearts not wholly sunk in selfish regards for person, or for family. The spread of education, by enlarging the cultivated class or caste, will open a wider area over which the social feelings will expand ; and, if this education should be universal and complete, it would do more than all things else to obliterate factitious distinctions in society.

" The main idea set forth in the creeds of some political reformers, or revolutionizers, is, that some people are poor *because* others are rich. This idea supposes a fixed amount of property in the community, which by fraud, or force, or arbitrary law, is unequally divided among men ; and the problem presented for solution is, how to transfer a portion of this property from those who are supposed to have too much, to those who feel and know that they have too little. At this point both their theory and their expectation of reform stop. But the beneficent power of education would not be exhausted, even though it should peaceably abolish all the miseries which spring from the co-existence, side by side, of enormous wealth and squalid want. It has a higher function. Beyond the power of diluting old wealth, it has the prerogative of creating new. It is a thousand times more lucrative than fraud ; and adds a thousand-fold more to a nation's resources than the most successful conquests. Knaves and robbers can obtain only what was before possessed by others.

But education creates or develops new treasures,—treasures not before possessed or dreamed of by any one.”

In conclusion, it is the imperative duty of the State to extend the privileges of her common schools to every child within her limits. To so legislate, that the rich shall feel the weight of their responsibility, and thus be made to insure the protection of their accumulated wealth by preventive measures; that the poor shall feel the benign yet authoritative influence that protects their children against the terrible power of their cruel necessities; that child-employers shall be brought into accord with law, and with that true political economy that looks at indirect as well as to direct causes; that grasps at the deepest problems of life, seeking no favor and fearing no criticism,—a political economy that, while appealing to an educated self-interest, remembers that the golden rule of Christ is the wisest measure for our material, as well as for our spiritual welfare; that the children who to-day—

“Are weary ere they run,”

shall bless the bounty and the wisdom of that State whose shores were consecrated to the establishment of a Commonwealth, whose every inhabitant should be secure in that freedom that is alone possible where education and wealth are as widely diffused, and as equitably distributed as the light of the sun that gives life, and the rain that brings forth the fruits in due season.

Recommendations.

As the subject-matter committed to my charge is that of the enforcement of the law relating to the employment and schooling of children employed in manufacturing and mechanical establishments, it might be deemed foreign to my duty to recommend any legislation not bearing directly upon this subject. But as indirect causes are sometimes more potent than direct, I take the liberty of suggesting—

First. That the school age shall include all from five years of age to eighteen.

Second. That all persons over five and under eighteen be enrolled annually, and their names, ages, addresses (and the

places of employment of such as are employed) be entered in a register kept for that purpose; said enrolment and registration to be made by such parties as the school committee may select.

Third. The establishment of a system of compulsory returns to schedules of inquiries, from school committees, assessors of towns and cities, and employers having children under their control as workers; the schedule to contain such inquiries as, when answered, will give to the legislature and the public full information as to the number of children in the State, and in school, of six years and under; that is, between five and six, between six and twelve, between twelve and fifteen, between fifteen and eighteen, over eighteen; together with the actual attendance and non-attendance, with causes of all absence, where it exceeds ten half-days in any one month.

In addition to these suggestions, I would recommend: First. That a law be enacted similar to the Factory Acts of England, limiting the age at which a child can be employed in any cotton, woollen, flax, jute, silk, iron, glass, paper, boots and shoes, cordage and twine, hosiery, furniture, hats and caps, India-rubber, elastic goods, straw or tobacco manufactory, at twelve years, and not then unless such children have received the elements of a common-school education, and shall be physically qualified for such labor; age, education, and physical condition to be matter of certificate provided for by law; and every child between twelve and eighteen to receive twenty weeks' schooling each year, of ten sessions each week, or forty weeks of five sessions each week; provided, that any child having graduated from the public grammar school, and being fifteen years of age, or upwards, and of good physical condition, may be exempt from further attendance;—said act to limit the hours of labor to all children between twelve and eighteen to eight hours a day, except in the case of those children who attend half-time schools; then the hours of labor shall be five per day. To provide for half-time schools; to provide also for protection to life and limb, against accidents from unguarded belting and machinery, and for suitable fire-escapes. Second. The appointment, by the governor,

of a factory inspector, with three deputies; said inspector to report in print to the governor, on the first of January of each year, and to have such powers as are requisite to secure the impartial enforcement of all laws relating to the schooling, hours of labor and employment of factory children.

Respectfully,

GEORGE E. McNEILL.

